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**THE IMPACT OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON FOLLOWER OUTCOMES:
TESTING THE MEDIATING ROLES OF
STEWARDSHIP CLIMATE AND TRUST**

A Dissertation
presented in partial fulfillment of requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Management
The University of Mississippi

by

WALLACE ALEXANDER WILLIAMS, JR.

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ABSTRACT

This research focused on the impact of servant leadership on follower citizenship behaviors (OCBs), both at the individual and organizational levels. The relationship was considered indirect, with trust, perceptions of fairness, and stewardship climate acting as mediating mechanisms between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors. The three major contributions are (1) the identification and empirical test of 'servant' and 'leader' components of servant leadership, (2) the theoretical extension of servant leadership through stewardship theory, and (3) evidence for its importance in explaining the role of stewardship climate in the relationship between servant leadership and follower OCBs. I report the results from two empirical studies that provide support for the model. Study 1 provides a test of the general model of servant leadership and provides initial support for the proposed components of servant leadership and their effects individual-level and organizational-level OCBs. Study 2 builds upon this model by including the mediating role of stewardship climate on the servant leadership – follower OCB relationship. Results provide initial support for the differing effects of the 'servant' and 'leader' components on individual and organizational follower citizenship behaviors, respectively. Furthermore, trust and stewardship climate were found to fully mediate these relationships. Implications for theory, practice, and future research are discussed.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my Heavenly Father, because "No matter what I become, I will always remain my Lord Supreme's infant child" ~ Tevin Campbell

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SL	Servant Leadership
SL-SERVANT	Servant Component of Servant Leadership
SL-LEADER	Leader Component of Servant Leadership
PJC	Procedural Justice Climate
SC	Stewardship Climate
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
OCBO	Individual-level Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
OCBI	Organizational-level Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank God for His continued blessings and arms of protection throughout this process. Five years of driving an hour and a half (one way) to and from Oxford, and no accidents – only by God’s grace. To my wife Tamara – I once told you that pursuing this dissertation was one of the hardest things I've ever done. You responded by telling me that you knew it was difficult, but I made it seem easy. That's only because you allowed me to focus all my attention on completing this program, while you covered everything from paying bills to cooking to scheduling home repairs, all without complaints. Similarly, I thank my mom, dad, and brother for their prayers and constant support throughout the last five years. I could not have completed this program without you.

To my dissertation committee: Dr. Tony Ammeter (Chair), Dr. Milorad Novicevic, Dr. Chris Thomas, and Dr. Ethel Young-Minor. I've learned so much from you throughout this entire PhD process, not only the dissertation phase. Thank you for guiding, pushing, and prodding me throughout this dissertation process. Also, a big thank you to Dr. Michael Harvey for being an unofficial mentor and for the lunches where you'd help me see the big picture of life as a college professor. Furthermore, thank you to my fellow doctoral students at OleMiss and in the PhD Project. The shared struggles let us know that we weren't going through this alone, and gave all of us the support and encouragement to keep going. Thank you to Caesar Douglas (1997) for paving the way.

Finally, to my relatives, friends, Pastor Bartholomew Orr, and my Brown Missionary Baptist Church family: Thank you for your prayers and constantly checking on me, even when I wasn't able to make it to many events over the last few years. I look forward to taking and making time now!

"There's no way I can pay you back, but the plan is to show you that I understand. You are appreciated." ~ Tupac Amaru Shakur (June 16, 1971 – September 13, 1996)

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION & OVERVIEW OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP

In today's complex business environment, characterized by pressures of globalization and competitiveness based on technological advancements, organizations are increasingly fostering flexible employment relations to compete effectively (Rousseau, 1997; Baker, 2009). This flexibility enables organizations to adopt structures exemplified by fewer management levels and unstructured work roles (Cascio and Aguinis, 2008). At the individual level, this calls for higher job autonomy (House, Shane, and Herold, 1996) and job responsibilities that require a more supportive leadership style (Oldham and Hackman, 2010). When their flexible roles with increased job responsibilities are supported by a genuinely empowering and caring leadership style, employees are likely to be engaged, find increased meaning in their work, and perform beyond the "call of duty" (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, and Schwartz, 1997; Kolodinsky, Giacalone, and Jurkiewicz, 2008; Duchon and Plowman, 2005).

To influence today's workforce to be more capable and engaged, leaders need to be follower-centric and relational. Nowadays, employees resist the directive leadership that is not relational and is primarily grounded in formal hierarchical positions. While the hierarchy often provides leaders with the position of authority, employees as followers grant legitimacy and importance mainly to those exhibiting horizontal relational leadership, which is built on trust (Mehra, Kilduff and Brass, 2001; Balkundi and Kilduff, 2005). Leadership that is relational and follower-focused is "a broader, mutual influence process independent of any formal role or hierarchical structure and diffused among the members of any given social system" (DeRue and

Ashford, 2010 p. 627). To enact such a climate of mutual influence, leaders need to gain the trust of their followers, while at the same time exhibiting accountability in the stewardship of organizational resources (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009; Manz, Anand, Joshi and Manz, 2008; Campbell, 2007). In this way, leaders are substituting transactive influence based on self-serving actions with a relational, follower-serving influence fostering trust and accountability in the leader-follower relationship. “The ideal of a heroic, hierarchical-oriented leader with primacy to shareholders has quickly been replaced by a view on leadership that gives priority to stewardship, ethical behavior and collaboration through connecting to other people” (van Dierendonck and Patterson, 2010 p. 3). These organizational leaders that serve as stewards of the organization while also serving the developmental needs of employees as their followers are called ‘servant leaders’, and the related influence process is called ‘servant leadership’ (Hicks, 2002).

The process of servant leadership, with its focus on serving the needs of followers in an authentic and empowering manner, has received increased attention by academic researchers because today’s knowledge-rich and innovation-intensive organizations are interested in developing effective servant leaders that are committed to helping their followers maximize their potential (Greenleaf, 1970; Van Dierendonck, 2010). The leadership style of emphasizing servanthood (Spears, 1995) and relational power (Graham, 1991) is conceptualized to help develop followers and enable them to do what they do best. Additionally, servant leaders, by holding themselves accountable for (a) the use organizational resources, (b) the maintenance of stakeholder relationships, and (c) the promotion of organizational values, act as stewards of the organization. Essentially, they are expected to exhibit responsible leadership behaviors across all

stakeholder relationships that are much needed in this era of heightened social responsibility (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson, 2008; Parolini, Patterson, and Winston, 2009).

In the remaining sections of this chapter, I will first provide a literature review of servant leadership. Second, I will provide an overview of organizational citizenship behaviors. Then, I will present the intended purpose of this dissertation, including the research question and initial model. Finally, I will discuss the intended contributions.

Servant Leadership Literature Review

Research on servant leadership, as a relatively new theme in the domain of leadership, has mainly focused either on examining characteristics of servant leaders or on distinguishing servant leadership from other leadership styles. In this first section, I provide a literature review of the research on servant leadership. I focus on the development of the servant leadership concept (specifically, the idea of the “servant as leader”), the characteristics of servant leaders, and the differences between servant leadership and other leadership constructs in order to summarize the empirical findings of servant leadership research.

Defining Servant Leadership

The belief in the importance of leadership through service can be traced well throughout history in general and religion in particular. Perhaps the outstanding examples of combining leadership with servanthood are found in the Bible. For example, the Bible records numerous accounts of Jesus Christ teaching servant principles (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002) and stating, "If anyone wants to be first, he must be the very last, and the servant of all" (Mark 9:35 New International Version). Earlier, Xenophon, the Greek philosopher and historian, encouraged rulers to praise their followers, and to put the interests of their subordinates above their own (Humphreys, Williams, Clayton, and Novicevic, 2011). This type of servant attitude would

endear the peasants to their ruler, creating loyalty and trust. In a similar manner, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. stated much later in his “Drum Major Instinct” (1968) speech, “Everybody can be great, because everybody can serve.... You only need a heart full of grace, a soul generated by love.”

Multiple examples of servant-type leadership practices can be found in the history of management thought (Wren and Bedeian, 2008). Most notably, Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933), recognized as an influential figure in management history (Wren, 2005), viewed the leader’s primary task as defining the purpose of the organization. This is truly a common purpose of both the leader and the followers when it does not reflect the convictions of the leader, but those shared within the group. Follett (1926) questioned leadership based on a directive style of giving of orders to followers in a top-down, non-reciprocal manner. The dynamic nature of business, she believed, required relational leadership as a function of the social situation at hand. By exercising “power-with” instead of “power-over” subordinates (Wren, 2005), the true authority of the leader could lie in the situation (not in the person or position), causing leaders and followers to influence each other reciprocally in a circular manner. The underlying logic of Follett’s belief was that the chief function of leaders in society is *service* (Simms, 2009). “Function is the best word because it implies not only that you are responsible for serving your community, but that you are partly responsible for there being any community to serve” (Graham, 1995, p. 269).

The modern conceptualization of servant leadership was initially provided by Greenleaf (1904-1990) in his essay, *The Servant as Leader* (1970). This work exemplifies the genesis of servant leadership as a field of study (Spears, 1995; Van Dierendonck, 2010; Graham, 1991). In this work, Greenleaf coined the phrase “servant leadership,” claiming:

"The servant-leader is servant first.... Becoming a servant-leader begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first.... For such people, it will be a later choice to serve - after leadership is established. The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant first to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served. (1970, p.7)

Servant leadership marks an others-perspective of leadership actions because it is horizontally follower-centric and therefore different in its primary focus when compared to other vertical, leader-centered styles. Resonating with Follett's relational power and focus on service is Greenleaf's assertion that the servant leader is "primus inter pares," or "first among equals." In other words, servant leaders emphasize power-with through follower engagement as opposed to power-over exercised through leader authority. The relevance of servant leadership is growing due to the dramatic environmental changes faced by today's organizations. In particular, increased competition puts a pressure on organizations to be responsible and delegate more responsibility to their front-line employees (Cascio, 1995; Rousseau, 1997). As a result, community building, teamwork and empowerment of the followers are the processes that are emphasized, as their personal growth is just as important as their professional growth. For these processes to be sustained, servant leaders internalize the belief that the best way to help the organization is by helping its employees.

While Greenleaf (1970) provides the conceptualization useful for an understanding of servant leadership, his writings did not contain a concrete definition. Therefore, his work was followed by many attempts to develop an appropriate definition of servant leadership. The common link among all these attempts at defining servant leadership is the accentuation of

servanthood (Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora, 2008) and follower development as its fundamental components. For example, Laub (1999) defined servant leadership as “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader, emphasizing leader behaviors that focus on follower development, and de-emphasizing glorification of the leader” (p. 83). Similarly, Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) posit that servant leadership “focuses on developing employees to their fullest potential in the areas of task effectiveness, community stewardship, self-motivation, and future leadership capabilities” (p. 162). For the purpose of this dissertation, I adopt Hale and Fields’ (2007) comprehensive definition of servant leadership as “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader, emphasizing leader behaviors that focus on follower development, and de-emphasizing glorification of the leader” (p. 397).

Characteristics of Servant Leaders

The lack of consensus about a clear definition of servant leadership has led many authors to re-focus their research to attempts of identifying specific dimensions, characteristics, or attributes of servant leaders (Van Dierendonck, 2010). Identifying the first set of servant-leader characteristics is credited to Spears (1995). Building on Greenleaf’s writings, Spears suggests that the following ten characteristics are critical to servant leaders: (1) listening; (2) empathy; (3) healing; (4) awareness; (5) persuasion; (6) conceptualization; (7) foresight; (8) stewardship; (9) commitment to the growth of people; and, (10) building community.

As Spears (1998) noted that this list is not exhaustive, Russell and Stone (2002) provided the most extensive collection of these characteristics. The authors categorized the characteristics of servant leaders into functional and accompanying in nature. However, the main limitation of the method leading to this categorization was the emphasis on counting the number of

researchers who mentioned the attribute, instead of assessing the relative importance of each attribute used in describing or distinguishing servant leaders.

Mittal and Dorfman (forthcoming) conducted a cross-cultural study of servant leadership in order to explore the perceived importance of servant leadership dimensions across societies. Using data obtained from the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project, the authors conceptualized servant leadership along five dimensions: (1) egalitarianism (degree of equality among leaders and followers); (2) moral integrity (courage and ethical behavior); (3) empowering followers; (4) empathy towards followers, and (5) humility. The GLOBE project identified ten regional culture clusters (representing 59 societies), and the authors examined each of the servant leadership dimensions in terms of the ten clusters. They found that four of the five dimensions (egalitarianism, empowering, empathy, and humility) differed significantly across clusters in terms of their relative importance to that culture. Moral Integrity was uniformly rated as high across all cultures.

Recently, Van Dierendonck (2010) identified the most relevant characteristics and presented a conceptual model of servant leadership, proposing that servant leaders, through trust and facets of organizational climate, promote citizenship behaviors among their followers (as shown in Figure 1). This model, which was developed after an extensive review of the theoretical and empirical research related to servant leadership (for example, Russell and Stone, 2002; Laub, 1999; and Patterson, 2003), summarized the following six key characteristics of servant leadership behavior as experienced by followers: *(1) Empowering and Developing People; (2) Humility; (3) Authenticity; (4) Interpersonal Acceptance; (5) Providing Direction; and (6) Stewardship* (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011).

Empowering and developing people. Empowerment involves enabling followers and encouraging their personal development (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2010). The goal is to create pro-active, self-confident followers, who are given the opportunity to pursue activities that they enjoy as well as tasks in which they can learn and grow. While being available to support their followers when needed, servant leaders encourage their followers to make decisions. This is based on the servant leader's intrinsic belief in the value of each follower and their potential (Greenleaf, 1970).

Humility. While sometimes erroneously considered to be a condition of low self-regard (Emmons, 1998), humility represents the servant leader's ability to assess and acknowledge their limitations as well as their strengths (Tangney, 2009). Also, humility entails an other-focus, and involves choosing to make someone (or something) other than "self" the center of attention. Servant leaders choose to focus on their follower's well-being and on the good of the community at large (Gau and Van Dierendonck, 2011). Through humility, servant leaders are motivated to minimize their personal goals, and instead focus on understanding the needs of the followers and other stakeholders they serve, in order to exercise influence on their behalf (Howell, 1988). In other words, servant leaders have a natural tendency to lead by putting the needs of others before their own, and by employing followers to be mindful of the needs all organizational stakeholders (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006).

Authenticity. This characteristic of servant leaders describes their ability to express the 'true self'. Servant leaders are consistent in their thoughts and feelings, whether interacting with various followers, coworkers, or superiors. Their attitudes and decisions in their professional roles stem from and remain consistent with their personal values (Halpin and Croft, 1966).

Interpersonal Acceptance. Servant leaders possess the ability to understand that everyone makes mistakes. This characteristic involves letting go of perceived wrongdoings and not carrying a grudge against followers. Interpersonal acceptance is closely tied to empathy, an other-oriented perspective that involves servant leaders relating to their follower's current emotional state. Similarly, interpersonal acceptance is linked with emotional healing, which involves helping their followers recover from tough personal and business situations (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006). Through listening, forgiveness, empathy, and emotional healing, followers build trust and know that they are free to create and innovate without fear of being rejected by servant leaders (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2010).

Providing direction. While most research focuses on their relational characteristics, it is important to note the servant leader's ability to set a course for their followers. This stems from their knowledge of both the job and the organization. For example, research by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) indicated that servant leaders have a keen sense of their organizational surroundings, and are able to decipher cues from their environment in order to benefit their followers and the organization. Furthermore, they use persuasive mapping in order to articulate a vision for the future. Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) also point to the servant leader's knowledge of the organization and tasks at hand as key skills used to provide direction to followers. Servant leaders not only empower followers and give them the necessary resources to be successful, but they also hold their followers accountable for using those resources in a way that is moral, ethical, and beneficial to all.

Stewardship. Van Dierendonck (2010) notes that stewardship involves taking responsibility for the institution at large. Servant leaders act as caretakers for all organizational resources and stakeholders, and genuinely show a concern for the community and its growth.

They hold strong to a sense of obligation to a common good, and act as a role model for followers in this manner as well (Hernandez, 2008). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) described servant leaders not only in terms of their care for all organizational stakeholders, but also in terms of their ability to motivate followers to pursue similar goals. The servant leader's sense of stewardship is infectious, promoting in followers a desire to make a positive contribution to their workplace, organization, and society at large (Liden et al, 2008).

Recently, Gau and Van Dierendonck (2011) empirically examined the effects of servant leadership on challenging work conditions and organizational commitment. They identified empowerment, accountability, stewardship, humility, and standing back (ie, putting the needs of their subordinates before their own) as the essential characteristics of servant leaders. They specifically studied situations in which the working conditions promote the opportunity for mental challenges and job enrichment through meaningful tasks that encourage growth and learning. Their research showed that servant leaders create challenging working conditions for followers. This increases the follower's psychological empowerment, causing them to place more meaning on the specific responsibilities and skills highlighted by the servant leader, and on the general meaning in their work overall, both of which lead to increased organizational commitment.

Figure 1 – Conceptual Model of Servant Leadership
(Adapted from Van Dierendonck, 2010)



Distinguishing Servant Leadership from Other Leadership Styles

As a result of organizational stakeholders calling for more accountability and ethics in the workplace (Manz, Ananda, Joshia and Manza, 2008), and the considerable attention that has been given to positive organizational behavior in the literature (Luthans, 2002; Youssef, 2007; Searle and Barbuto, 2010), there are many current leadership constructs that stem from or have ties to positive traits. Avolio and colleagues (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber 2009) have identified these leadership trends, and while recognized as a distinct leadership style, servant leadership does overlap with several other leadership styles (Avolio et al, 2009). Researchers have made comparisons of servant leadership with: spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003), authentic leadership (Avolio and Gardner, 2005), ethical leadership (Brown and Trevino, 2006), and transformational leadership (Graham, 1991). In the remaining part of this subsection, I will describe the findings and outline the differences.

Graham (1991) related charismatic authority, celebrity charisma, and transformational leadership to servant leadership by including them in a broader category of charismatic leadership constructs. She noted that servant leaders recognize: (1) the inherent human fallibility; (2) the likelihood of positional narcissism; and (3) the tendency of followers to experience declines in their critical thinking capacity. Graham (1991) posited that by practicing relational power, servant leaders distinguish themselves from transformational leaders in two main areas. First, while transformational leaders mainly focus on organizational goals, servant leaders focus more on the needs of each organizational stakeholder. In this way, servant leaders emphasize the moral dimension, focusing their attention on the needs of their followers before attending to the organization's needs. Second, servant leaders promote follower development, which creates trust in the leader's actions and behaviors of caring for organizational

stakeholders. This, in turn, prompts followers to choose to be moral agents and mindful of their duties and responsibilities at work and in society.

Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmenko (2004) provided a different comparison of transformational and servant leadership by focusing on the role that context plays in the effectiveness of the two leadership styles. They posit that servant leaders are more effective in organizations facing stable external environments, while transformational leaders are more effective in organizations facing “intense external pressure where revolutionary change is necessary for survival” (Smith et al 2004, p. 87), as transformational leaders make better quick decisions. Using the historical method, Humphreys (2005) provided support for this claim by comparing the effectiveness of Xenophon (transformational leader) and Chief Joseph (servant leader), who both went through tumultuous times involving conflict, war, and retreats. In particular, Humphreys (2005) found that Xenophon’s transformational leadership style produced the change that contributed to the achievement of organizational goals, while Chief Joseph’s servant leadership produced follower satisfaction and commitment.

Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, and Roberts (2008) tested the effects of servant leadership on helping and creative behaviors of followers. Their model included the mediating role of regulatory focus. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997; 1998) proposes that individuals have a predisposition for one of two self-regulatory mindsets: prevention or promotion focus. Prevention focus is evoked by needs for security, and causes individuals to be more conservative in their actions. Conversely, promotion focus is evoked by needs for growth, and causes individuals to be more creative and innovative. Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes (1994) stated that promotion-focus individuals concentrate on (1) nurturance, (2) hopes and aspirations, and (3) gains (instead of losses) more so than prevention-focused individuals. While

trait-like in nature, situations can trigger one focus over another (Crowe and Higgins, 1997).

Therefore, situational cues in the workplace (for example, organizational climates or leadership styles) can cause employees to emphasize a particular focus (Wallace and Chen, 2006; Kirk and Van Dijk, 2007), a process that Higgins (2000) described as ‘regulatory fit’.

Therefore, Neubert and colleagues (2008) tested the effects of two leadership styles on an employee’s regulatory focus, and how this would subsequently lead to differing employee behaviors. First, initiating structure is “a leadership style that is oriented toward defining performance, goal, and role expectations and constraints” (Neubert et al, 2008 p. 1221).

Therefore, leaders who focus on structure, duties, and responsibilities foster a prevention mindset within their employees. Their research showed that leaders who initiate structure promote a prevention focus, which (1) leads to an employee’s in-role performance, and (2) is inversely related to the employee’s level of workplace deviance. On the other hand, they found that servant leaders operate through their sincere concern for the well being of their followers and their community. This fosters a promotion mindset within their employees, which leads to both helping and creative behaviors by the employee. Neubert et al’s (2008) research found support for prevention focus partially mediating the relationship between initiating structure and deviant behavior, and fully mediating between initiating structure and the employee’s in-role performance. Promotion focus fully mediated the relationship between servant leadership and both helping and creative behaviors.

Stone, Russell and Patterson (2004) identified an overlap between servant and transformational leaders, arguing that the main similarity stems from the fact that both are people-oriented leadership styles. The authors contend that the main difference stems from the leader's focus. Transformational leaders direct their focus on the organization, using their

leadership style to build follower commitment to organizational objectives. Specifically, Yukl (1989) argued that the transformational leader influences the attitudes of organizational members, "but the effect of the influence is to empower subordinates to participate in the process of transforming the organization" (p. 269). In contrast, servant leaders focus on their follower's well-being, as they "trust their followers to undertake actions that are in the best interest of the organization" (Stone et al, 2004 p. 355). Servant leaders influence followers by motivating them towards acts of service and stewardship, while transformational leaders influence their followers through enthusiastic charisma (Stone et al, 2004).

Parolini, Patterson, and Winston (2009) identified empirically a difference between servant and transformational leadership. Pointing to the five areas of distinction between the two leadership styles (moral, focus, motive and mission, development, and influence), the authors inferred that servant leaders focus their attention on their follower's needs, whereas transformational leaders focus on the goals of the organization. In addition, they proposed that while transformational leaders inspire their followers to become leaders (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999) and to identify with the leader's mission (Bass, 2000), servant leaders encourage their followers to become servants and follow their own conscience (Greenleaf, 1970). Overall, Parolini et al's (2009) research showed support for an initial discriminant analysis of four items to distinguish between servant and transformational leaders (they found support for the motive and mission area of distinction, but found no support for the other four areas).

Overall, the comparisons have revealed that three main characteristics, when taken together, set servant leadership apart from other leadership concepts (Ehrhart, 2004; Sendjaya and Pekerti, 2010, Walumbwa et al, 2010). First, the servant leader's highest priority is not self-interest, but service to others, both the inside and the outside stakeholders. As servant leadership

is based on the assumption that these leaders have a desire to serve, this leadership style implies service, instead of expecting to be served (Graham, 1991). The desire to serve imposes no contextual boundaries as all organizational stakeholders are considered important, not only across time, but also across situations (Reinke, 2004; Walumbwa et al, 2010). In this manner, the servant-leader seeks opportunities to help others, even “in the absence of extenuating personal benefits” (Sendjaya and Pekerti, 2010 p. 3). This desire for “service above self” is the key characteristic that makes servant leaders distinct from other conceptualizations of leadership (Graham, 1991).

Second, the servant-leader’s primary focus is on the follower. Van Dierendonck (2010) claimed that servant leaders value their follower’s growth, and view it developmentally as an end in and of itself, not only instrumentally as a means of organizational success (Ehrhart, 2004). This means that servant leaders feel responsible for serving all organizational stakeholders, but primarily through their followers, trusting that they will do what is best for the organization and its constituents (Stone et al, 2004).

Third, servant leadership incorporates a moral component. The moral compass (Ehrhart, 2004) or code (Russell and Stone, 2002) of servant leaders manifests itself in multiple ways. For example, Ehrhart (2004) argues that servant leaders strive to avoid inconsistencies in how they treat their subordinates, “as this would contradict the underlying moral emphasis of the concept” (p. 69). This striving reflects the servant leader’s power motivation, which is primarily a relational power based upon a need to serve (Graham, 1991; Van Dierendonck, 2010).

Outcomes of Servant Leadership:

Follower Citizenship Behaviors

Building off of Katz's (1964) conceptualization of extra-role behaviors, Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Thus, while in-role behaviors are those directly tied to formal performance and reward structures, OCBs represent those aspects of the job that are not specified through role prescriptions. However, these extra-role behaviors add value to the organization, especially in dynamic environments where all duties and responsibilities are not easily or readily defined and therefore some of them often need to be delegated (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998).

Organ (1988, 1990) identified seven categories of OCBs in the workplace. First, *sportsmanship* represents the employee's willingness "to tolerate less than ideal circumstances" (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume, 2009, p. 123). Second, employees display *civic virtue* by taking an active interest and concern in the life of the organization. Third, employees display *conscientiousness* (or *compliance*) behaviors by accepting and adhering to (and perhaps going beyond) the policies and regulations of the organization, even when not being monitored. While the first three categories are easily recognized and distinguishable by managers, it is more difficult to observe the remaining four categories (altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping, and cheerleading) of *helping* behavior, which reflects employee tendencies to provide support to coworkers and prevent work-related issues (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume, 2009).

Similarly, Williams and Anderson (1991) described OCBs in terms of the particular beneficiary or target of focus of the extra-role behaviors. The authors grouped citizenship behaviors into those behaviors that are directed toward the organization as a whole (OCB-O), and those that are directed toward individuals (OCB-I). OCB-O is similar to Organ's (1990)

compliance behavior, while OCB-I is similar to the helping behavior (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, 2000). Williams and Anderson (1991) contend that the distinction between OCB-I and OCB-O are important for both theoretical and empirical reasons, since they can have differing antecedents and outcomes (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume, 2009).

Researchers have used social exchange theory to provide a theoretical explanation for the followers' willingness to engage in OCBs. For example, Bateman and Organ (1983) used social exchange theory to demonstrate the effects of job satisfaction on OCBs. When followers experience job satisfaction (especially in the areas of 'opportunities for promotion' and 'support from the immediate supervisor'), they tend to want to return those efforts. While this behavior may not be possible to exhibit within their formal work role, it is possible to exhibit it informally as extra-role behaviors (for example, helping a coworker, keeping a work area tidy, or preserving organizational resources) may provide an outlet for reciprocation.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) examined the extant empirical literature on organizational citizenship behavior. They noted that research has focused on four main categories as antecedents: individual (or follower) characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leader behaviors. Regarding the leader behaviors, Podsakoff and colleagues (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, 2000) provide empirical research showing that specific aspects of leadership influence organizational citizenship behaviors. In particular, leaders who (1) provide a model and lead by example, (2) inspire intellectual stimulation, (3) show supportive behaviors, and (4) have a strong leader-member exchange relationship are likely to influence OCBs of their followers.

More specifically, Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke (2010) studied the effects of servant leadership on OCB. Using social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and social learning theory

(Bandura, 1977), the authors argued that servant leaders would not only focus on the development and growth of their followers, but also would show genuine care and concern for their well-being. Leaders serve as models for their subordinates (Smith, 1983; Graham, 1991); followers learn from their leaders, then reciprocate and create a social context in which extra-role (selfless) behaviors are common. Walumbwa and colleagues also found support for organizational climate and individual attitudes (specifically, the follower's self-efficacy and commitment to the supervisor) as partial mediators to this relationship. In other words, by (1) treating groups fairly, and (2) increasing their follower's self-efficacy and commitment, servant leaders tend to influence their followers to engage in behaviors outside of what their normal job entails.

Intended Contribution

The main research question addressed in this dissertation is, "How (i.e., along which mechanisms of influence) do servant leaders impact follower citizenship behaviors?" The focus of this research question is to examine the mediating mechanisms between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors. For this, I use social exchange theory and stewardship theory, and propose the model shown in Figure 2.

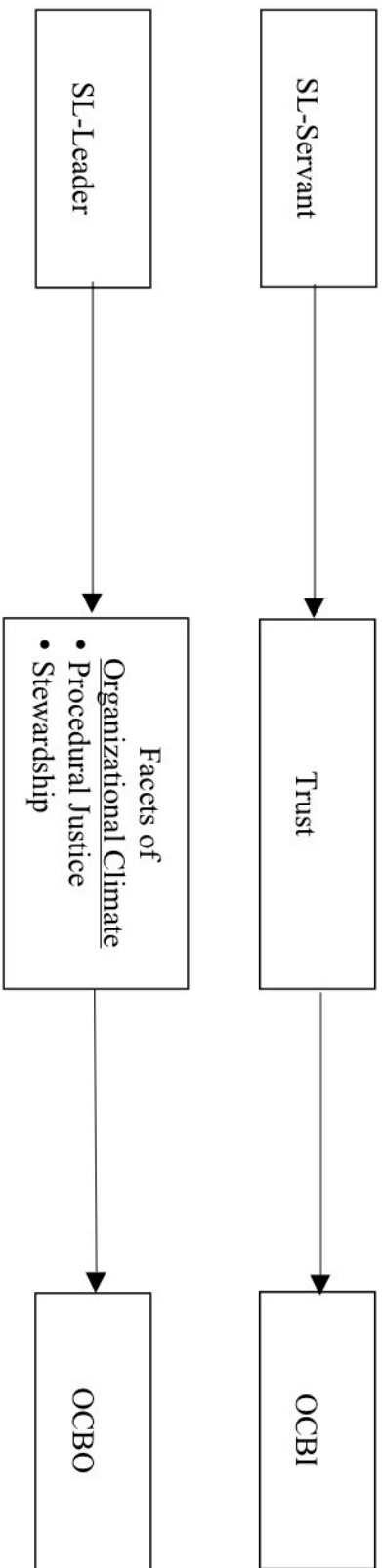
In this dissertation, I use social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, and Donaldson, 1997) to conceptualize the model proposed in Figure 2, in which I empirically test the multi-dimensional impact of servant leadership on follower citizenship behaviors (Greenleaf, 1970; Reinke, 2004; Van Dierendonck, 2010). With this conceptualization and empirical test, I will advance research in servant leadership in several ways. First, I empirically test the conceptual model of servant leadership proposed by Van Dierendonck (2010) to examine the mediating mechanisms through which specific dimensions of

servant leadership may impact follower citizenship behaviors. When exploring possible mediators, Van Dierendonck (2010) theorized that servant leaders "create a working environment where followers feel safe and trusted" (p. 19), which then leads to positive job attitudes and performance by the follower. He proposed that procedural justice climate and trust are the likely mechanisms that may explain this relationship. Therefore, these are included and empirically tested in this dissertation.

Second, as an extension of this servant leadership model, and as suggested by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), I explore a reconceptualized model of servant leadership that proposes separate influences of the ‘servant’ and ‘leader’ components of servant leadership. While servant leaders are well-known by their unique approach of focusing their efforts towards their followers, I propose that there is also an important ‘leader’ component through which they pursue the goals of all organizational stakeholders. By exploring these components theoretically and empirically, this dissertation will allow for an enriched understanding of how servant leaders influence organizational outcomes.

Third, I propose that servant leaders may enact a climate of stewardship, acknowledging that stewardship climate as a mediator has been neglected in servant leadership literature. Stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, and Donaldson, 1997), posits that servant leaders are motivated to harmonize the goals of organizational stakeholders without exhibiting self-serving behaviors. I test in this dissertation which specific dimensions of servant leadership may enact the climate of stewardship so that this climate could significantly affect follower citizenship behaviors. In this way, I respond to the call by Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) for more empirical studies that examine innovative aspects of servant leadership as a “current pillar in leadership research” (p. 423).

Figure 2 – Reconceptualized Model of Servant Leadership



CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FOUNDATION & HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

In Chapter Two, I describe the constructs used in the model shown in Figure 2.

Specifically, I describe the modeled independent variables ('servant' and 'leader' components of servant leadership), dependent variables (follower citizenship behaviors), and mediators (trust, procedural justice climate, and stewardship climate). To frame this description, I first present the 'servant' and 'leader' components of servant leadership. Second, I explain social exchange theory, which is used as the theoretical basis for the 'servant' aspect of servant leadership relationships. Third, I present stewardship climate as the theoretical foundation for the 'leader' component of servant leadership. Finally, I present the formal propositions and hypotheses of this dissertation, explaining the relationships between the components of servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors through trust, procedural justice climate, and stewardship climate.

'Servant' and 'Leader' Components of Servant Leadership

As noted in Chapter 1, servant leadership combines the desire to serve with the motivation to lead. Most research (both theoretically and empirically), however, has focused primarily on the service aspect of servant leadership. In order to advance the body of knowledge on servant leadership and to distinguish it from other contemporary leadership styles, it is necessary to extend the conceptualization of servant leadership beyond the mere follower-centric approach.

While mentioned theoretically in the servant leadership literature, researchers have sparsely tested the key leader aspects inherent in servant leadership. Three of Spears' (1995)

characteristics highlight the servant leader's knowledge and effectiveness as leaders beyond simply caring for their followers: persuasion, conceptualization, and foresight. This implies that servant leaders have the ability to persuade others of their point of view, can conceptualize ideas and think beyond the task at hand, and have intuition and foresight into possible outcomes (Van Dierendonck, 2010). Also, Russell and Stone (2002) indicate that servant leaders have the ability to effectively communicate and articulate a vision through the competence and knowledge they possess in their jobs. Recently, Liden et al (2008) noted the servant leader's effective conceptual skills, while Van Dierendonck (2010) observed that servant leaders provide direction for their followers. In effect, this line of research suggests that the conceptualization of servant leadership should be balanced between the components of 'servant' and 'leader'.

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) provided initial empirical support for 'servant' and 'leader' components of servant leadership. First, the 'servant' component describes the leader's *follower-serving approach*, which reflects the qualities of (1) standing back, (2) humility, and (3) authenticity. Servant leaders prefer to stay in the background and give credit and recognition to their followers for achievements. Even when servant leaders deserve recognition for an accomplishment, they remain humble. They are always authentic and true to their core values across the situations that they encounter with their followers.

Second, while servant leaders are best known for their servant role, there is also their 'leader' role that is often overlooked by researchers. This 'leader' component reflects (1) empowerment, (2) accountability, (3) stewardship, and (4) courage. Empowering followers is an important characteristic of servant leadership (Russell and Stone, 2002), indicating the servant leader's belief in the intrinsic value of each follower (Van Dierendonck, 2010). Through empowerment, servant leaders express their commitment to the development of each follower,

allowing them to express voice and provide input into key decision-making processes. Accountability compliments empowerment, as servant leaders want followers to know their responsibilities and be aware of exactly what is expected of them. Servant leaders are also stewards in that they are willing to put the needs of organizational stakeholders before their own. Leading in this manner takes courage on the part of servant leaders to commit to providing a clear direction and a roadmap to followers of how individual and organizational outcomes are to be achieved and what risks should be faced. In summary, servant leaders influence follower behavior to be both individually and organizationally oriented to delivering beyond the “call of duty.”

Trust and Procedural Justice Climate as Mediators:

The Perspective of Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory provides the appropriate theoretical foundation to explain how trust in the servant leader influences the individually-oriented follower citizenship outcomes. Social exchanges in the workplace are interpersonal connections such as those that are formed between servant leaders and followers when leaders "take care of employees, which thereby engender beneficial consequences" (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005 p. 882). By primarily focusing on the needs of their followers, servant leaders trust that the followers will reciprocate by doing what is best for the organization (Stone et al, 2004). Similarly, followers trusting the servant leaders and reciprocating with actions towards others within the organization is a way to repay the leader's actions (Hernandez, 2008).

The follower's feeling of an obligation to repay the kindness bestowed upon them by the servant leader reflects a norm of reciprocity. Gouldner (1960) provided a foundation for the study of these 'norms of reciprocity', claiming that the stability of social systems is contingent

upon the moral code related to the "exchange of gratifications, that is, reciprocity of exchange" (p. 168). The basis of this moral code rests on two main assumptions (Wayne, Shore, Liden, 1997): "(1) people should help those who have helped them, and (2) people should not injure those who have helped them" (Gouldner, 1960, p.171). Therefore, when one person provides a benefit to another, an obligation is created in which the benefactor becomes indebted to the donor, and remains until the donor is repaid.

Building on Gouldner's (1960) work, Blau (1964) suggested that there are two basic types of exchange relationships: economic and social. Social exchanges tend to "engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust" (p.94) creating social obligations that an economic (financial) exchange cannot create. These social-exchange relationships, which are different from social relationships that do not have explicit repayment expectations, involve socioemotional benefits and focus more on the needs of the other party (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), are different from the economic exchange relationships that often come with explicit repayment demands, involve material goods, and are geared toward personal self-interest (Mills and Clark, 1982).

Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) argued that most organizational research on social exchange focuses on the relationship between the employees as followers and (1) the organization, which tends to be a more global exchange, or (2) their supervisory leader, which is a dyadic relationship. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) extended this by noting that there are distinguishable qualities between the relationships employees as followers have with their immediate supervisor as leader, coworkers, employing organization, customers, and suppliers. Since each relationship carries a different set of benefits, the follower's behavior may vary based

on the nature of the relationship with the leader. The underlying theory behind this relationship is that when followers perceive the leader as trustworthy, they reciprocate in a similar manner.

Follower Trust in Servant Leaders

Social exchange theory is an appropriate framework to explain how trust in the leader may be the venue through which servant leadership influences follower effectiveness and outcomes such as OCBs (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) defined trust as the “willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (p. 712).

Blau (1964) stated that since social exchanges require trusting others to reciprocate, “the initial problem is to prove oneself trustworthy” (p. 98). Mayer et al (1995) noted that there are three main factors that followers use to assess the trustworthiness of a leader. First, a leader can be deemed trustworthy based on his or her abilities, expertise, and competencies in a particular domain. Second, trust can be established based on benevolence, which is the perception that the leader is helpful and genuinely cares for the follower without a self-serving motive. Third, the leader can establish trust with followers through his or her integrity. This involves the followers believing that the leader “adheres to a set of principles that the [follower] finds acceptable” (p. 719).

Greenleaf (1970) suggested that by selflessly serving others, servant leaders are likely to establish trust in their relationships. Moreover, creating and establishing trust is an essential function of servant leaders (Russell and Stone, 2002), because trust is an important mechanism through which servant leaders impact follower outcomes such as OCBs (Van Dierendonck, 2010). Greenleaf (1970) also noted that servant leaders create follower success by building a

community within followers that fosters trust. Servant leaders are especially poised to develop a trust climate due to their inherent capacity for listening, healing, empathy, and stewardship, which in turn enhances performance (Reinke, 2004). In this regard, trust is a venue through which servant leaders influence their followers.

Several past empirical studies have provided support for trust as a mediator between servant leadership and follower outcomes. A study conducted by Joseph & Winston (2005) provided preliminary support for this relationship when examining faculty and administrative staff in two educational institutions in Trinidad and Tobago. Specifically, the authors found a positive and significant correlation between servant leadership and follower perceptions of trust in both their organization and their leader.

Sendjaya and colleagues (Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora, 2008; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010)) studied the effects of servant leadership behaviors on follower trust. They conceptualized servant leadership as inclusive of the following dimensions: (1) voluntary subordination; (2) authentic self; (3) covenantal relationship; (4) responsible morality; (5) transcendental spirituality; and (6) transforming influence. These authors argued that social exchanges between the leader and follower would impact the followers' trust in the leader. While the servant leadership construct as a whole had a positive effect on follower trust, only three of its dimensions had a significant effect on follower trust. First, 'covenantal relationship', which is defined as leader behaviors that foster lasting relationships with their followers, had a significant effect. This relationship is based on shared values and mutual trust. The second effect was exhibited by 'responsible morality', which refers to moral reasoning and action. Servant leaders display this through relational power (Graham, 1991), which builds trust by facilitating "good moral dialogue between leaders and followers" (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010 p. 649). Lastly,

significance was found in ‘transforming influence’, which captures the servant leader’s ability to positively change the behavior and emotions of followers, ultimately resulting in trust and similar actions by the followers towards others (Greenleaf, 1970; Graham, 1991). These findings suggest that servant leaders build perceptions of trustworthiness in their followers by cultivating moral relationships and helping their followers grow both as employees and individuals.

An important conceptualization of trust in the leader is provided by McAllister (1995), who defined interpersonal trust as “the extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another” (p.25). He argued that interpersonal trust consists of both affect- and cognition-based aspects, which are formed due to differing perceptions. In terms of the leader-follower relationship, affect-based trust stems from emotional bonds between the leader and follower. These develop through the leader’s expressions of care and concern for the followers. Similar to Mayer et al’s (1995) factor of benevolence, affect-based trust consists of the leader’s belief in the intrinsic value of the followers. On the other hand, cognition-based trust is rooted in evidence of trustworthiness, which consists of the leader’s competence, reliability, and dependability. This is similar to Mayer et al’s (1995) ability factor, and includes extrinsic factors such as professional credentials or awards that the leader has obtained. McAllister (1995) found support for cognition- and affect-based trust as different aspects of interpersonal trust.

Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng (2011) showed how the relationship between servant leadership and trust can lead to differing organizational outcomes compared to other leadership styles. The authors focused on two leadership styles (specifically, transformational and servant leadership) and their influence on team performance through trust. They hypothesized that transformational leaders would create trust by developing confidence in the team members’

abilities to achieve the goal. In contrast, servant leaders would create trust by showing support and care for their follower's well-being. Measuring trust in the way that was consistent with McAllister's (1995) measurement of cognition- and affect-based trust, the authors found support for cognition-based trust mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and team potency, which is a team member's "generalized beliefs about the capabilities of the team across tasks and contexts" (Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, and Beaubien, 2002, p. 820). Affect-based trust mediated the relationship between servant leadership and psychological safety, which is "a shared belief that the team is a safe environment for interpersonal risk taking" (Schaubroeck et al, p. 2). In turn, both team potency and psychological safety were shown to lead to improved team performance. Hence, it should be noticed that servant leadership operates only through psychological safety because servant leaders, through their inherent concern for their follower's well being, engender affect-based trust in the followers, which in turn makes them feel safe. In this way, servant leadership explained an additional 10% of the variance in team performance above that explained by transformational leadership.

Procedural Justice Climate

Van Dierendonck (2010) suggested that the servant leader enacts a psychological climate by influencing follower perceptions of fairness and trust. As many decisions made by the leader have specific implications for the followers (Van Knippenberg and De Cremer, 2008), followers tend to assess the fairness of the leader's decision-making process in procedural terms. Procedural justice climate refers to the "perceived fairness of the procedures used to arrive at outcomes" (Mayer, Bardes, and Piccolo, 2008 p. 182). With respect to the servant leader's influence, followers form perceptions of procedural justice or fairness based on their personal

experiences, as well as based on observed experiences of others interacting with the leader servant (Naumann and Bennett, 2000).

Ehrhart (2004) examined procedural justice climate as a potential mediator between servant leadership and follower OCBs and found that procedural justice climate partially mediated this relationship when assessed by followers. In other words, by treating them fairly, servant leaders tend to influence their followers to engage in citizenship behaviors. Also, Walumbwa et al. (2010) found support for procedural justice climate as a partial mediator to the relationship between servant leadership and OCB. These findings lend support to Greenleaf's (1970) claim that followers of servant leaders are "more likely themselves to become servants" (p. 7), but due to their finding of partial mediation, Walumbwa and colleagues (2010) suggest that other variables may also influence this relationship.

Stewardship Climate as Mediator: The Perspective of Stewardship Theory

The authority relationships in organization theory are commonly modeled by agency theory (Jensen and Meckling, 1976). Agency theory assumes that the goals of managers (agents) and shareholders (principals) are seldom aligned. Therefore, in order to influence managers to act in ways that coincide with the interests of the organization, shareholders institute governance mechanisms. These mechanisms of internal controls mainly come in the form of (motivating) incentive-based executive compensation and (monitoring) governing structures, such as Boards of Directors. These control mechanisms are designed to prevent managers as organizational leaders from behaving opportunistically and in a self-serving manner.

An alternative assumption of managerial behavior underlies stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, and Donaldson, 1997). This theory contends that the primary motivation of managers as leaders is to serve the needs of the organization by accomplishing its mission

through maintaining stakeholder relationships while not behaving in an opportunistic, self-serving manner. The key assumption in this theory is that the goals of the manager and the organization are typically aligned (Lee and O'Neill, 2003). When leaders act as stewards, they demonstrate pro-social behaviors by placing the interests of organizational stakeholders before their own (Hernandez, forthcoming). Their motives stem not only from either a need for achievement or responsibility, but also from a sense of calling or duty (Donaldson, 2008).

Stewardship theory provides an explanation for why and how organizational leaders are likely to unselfishly help their organizations achieve competitive advantages (Davis, Allen and Hayes, 2010; Pearson and Marler, 2010). In situations where the leader internalizes the organization's values, fewer controls are needed for leaders that act as stewards, and resources can be re-focused for use in profitable areas. Thus, when organizational leaders exhibit stewardship behaviors, organizational stakeholders are more confident that resources are being used not only to maximize performance of the organization but also to the benefit of followers and other stakeholders (Chrisman, Chua, and Litz, 2004).

The assumptions of stewardship theory resonate well with the notion of servant leadership (Graham, 1995). Due to their follower-centric focus, servant leaders tend to keep the needs and interests of followers before their own. Furthermore, servant leaders are (1) committed to the growth of individual employees, (2) care about the survival of the organization, and (3) have a responsibility to the stakeholder community (Reinke, 2004). In other words, servant leaders are concerned with all organizational stakeholders (Graham, 1991). As these leaders set an example of service that encourages their followers to do the same, they enact the climate of stewardship across the organization (Reinke, 2004).

To motivate their employees, servant leaders as stewards use intrinsic rewards in terms of opportunities for growth and achievement, increased responsibility, and self-actualization (Dennis and Bocarnea, 2005). By emphasizing empowerment and accountability, servant leaders express their belief that each individual follower can contribute value to organizational outcomes (Van Dierendonck, 2010; Greenleaf, 1970). Their belief is manifested as delegation of responsibility, which contributes to an increase in intrinsic motivation of followers to go beyond the “call of duty” (Van Dierendonck, 2010). Through the process of delegation, servant leaders establish clear goals for their followers and provide them with the necessary tools, while holding them accountable for their actions.

Servant leadership may influence work climate, which reflects "perceptually based descriptions of relevant organizational features, events, and processes" (Kozlowski and Doherty, 2002 p. 546). As an individual-level construct, work climate refers to an individual's perception of the work environment, which is called 'psychological climate' (James and James, 1989; Kuenzi and Schminke, 2009). When aggregated to the unit or group-level as a collective phenomena, work climate is called ‘organizational climate’. Organizational climate is defined as "a set of shared perceptions regarding the policies, practices, and procedures that an organization rewards, supports, and expects" (Kuenzi and Schminke, p. 637), and is formed by the interactions of members within the work group (Schneider and Reichers, 1983).

Both psychological and organizational climates can be contextualized as facet-specific climates (Schneider, 1975; Kuenzi and Schminke, 2009). Facet-specific climates (for example, climates for innovation, procedural justice, service, or diversity) reflect a particular organizational context. The influence of facet-specific climates on organizational and individual

outcomes has been studied empirically at both the psychological (Kozlowski and Doherty, 2002) and organizational (Kuenzi and Schminke, 2009) levels.

Leadership style is considered an important factor effecting climate perceptions (Li and Cropanzano, 2009; Mayer, Bardes, and Piccolo, 2008; Mayer Nishii, Schneider, and Godstein, 2007). The relationship and interactions between leaders and followers create perceptions and interpretations of the environment through which the followers choose their behaviors (Kozlowski and Doherty, 2002). More specifically,

When servant leaders act as stewards, servant leadership may influence follower's perceptions and interpretations of a stewardship climate at both psychological (individual) and situational (organizational) levels. In regards to the psychological climate, followers interpret the stewardship climate along three main dimensions: intrinsic motivation, organizational identification, and the use of power (Craig, Dibrell, Neubaum, and Thomas, 2011). First, stewardship is based on *intrinsic motivation*, which constitutes the followers' perceptions of the servant leader's need for growth, achievement or self-actualization as the organization's leader (Davis et al, 1997), and is described as "deriving spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself" (Gagne and Deci, 2005 p. 331). Second, through *organizational identification*, the followers perceive the extent to which the servant leader embraces and identifies with the organization's mission and objectives. Third, stewardship is characterized by the *use of power*. Followers perceive the extent to which the servant leader relies on personal (relational) power, rather than relying on structural or formal means to define his or her relationship with followers.

Servant leaders act as stewards to their organization when they keep the interests and well-being of all stakeholders even above their own interests (Van Dierendonck, 2010). The capacity of servant leaders to enact a stewardship climate may influence followers to exhort

OCBs. In support of this claim, Pearson and Marler (2010) contend that the organization receives greater benefits when stewardship is demonstrated, “embraced and institutionalized as an implicit way of functioning” (p.1117). Graham (1995) stated that by serving the needs of all organizational stakeholders and by using relational and personal power with their followers, servant leaders create a climate that “frees participants from the need to guard self-interest” (p. 51). In other words, servant leaders may foster a climate of stewardship, in which followers also likely to become stewards and reciprocate the pro-organizational OCBs.

Servant Leadership and Follower Citizenship Behaviors:

Hypotheses Development

The proposed model depicting the hypothetical relationships formulated among the constructs described earlier in this section is shown in Figure 3 as a detailed elaboration of Figure 2. The model is based on the social exchange and stewardship theories and supported by the research conducted by Podsakoff and colleagues (1996; 2000), who showed that leadership styles influence organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). In this vein, the components of servant leadership are expected to influence follower citizenship behaviors. Given that servant leaders are inherently mindful of their follower’s needs, exhibit authenticity, humility, and put their followers first (for example, standing back while letting followers receive credit), they are expected to lead to their followers in expressing a desire to reciprocate in a similar manner and exhibit citizenship behavior towards the leader, their peers, and other organizational stakeholders. Therefore, I expect the relational (follower-centric) ‘servant’ component of servant leadership to influence individual-level organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB-I) of followers.

Similarly, as servant leaders show courage by empowering their followers, hold followers accountable for work outcomes, and exhibit stewardship towards all organizational stakeholders, followers of servant leaders will likely express a desire to reciprocate by going above and beyond the call of duty. Therefore, I expect the ‘leader’ component of servant leadership to influence organizational-level organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB-O) of followers.

Based on insights derived from the application of social exchange theory, I expect trust and procedural climate to operate as mediating mechanisms between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors of followers. Consistent with Schaubroeck et al. (2011), I expect that servant leadership will influence followers’ trust. Extending the work of Schaubroeck et al. (2001) who used Liden et al.’s (2008) multidimensional Servant Leadership Scale and collapsed its dimensions into one composite index of servant leadership, I separate the servant leadership dimensions into ‘servant’ and ‘leader’ components and propose that the ‘servant’ component will influence trust. In other words, owing to their follower-centric focus, servant leaders will engender trust in their relationship with their followers, who in turn will reciprocate by exhibiting their individual-level citizenship behaviors (OCB-I). Furthermore, servant leaders will enact an organizational climate based on fairness towards followers and all stakeholders, which will cause followers to reciprocate by exhibiting organizational-level citizenship behaviors (OCB-O).

P1: Trust mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.

H1a: Trust mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.

H1b: Trust mediates the relationship between the ‘servant’ component of servant leadership and individual-level follower citizenship behaviors.

P2: Procedural justice climate mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.

H2a: Procedural justice climate mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.

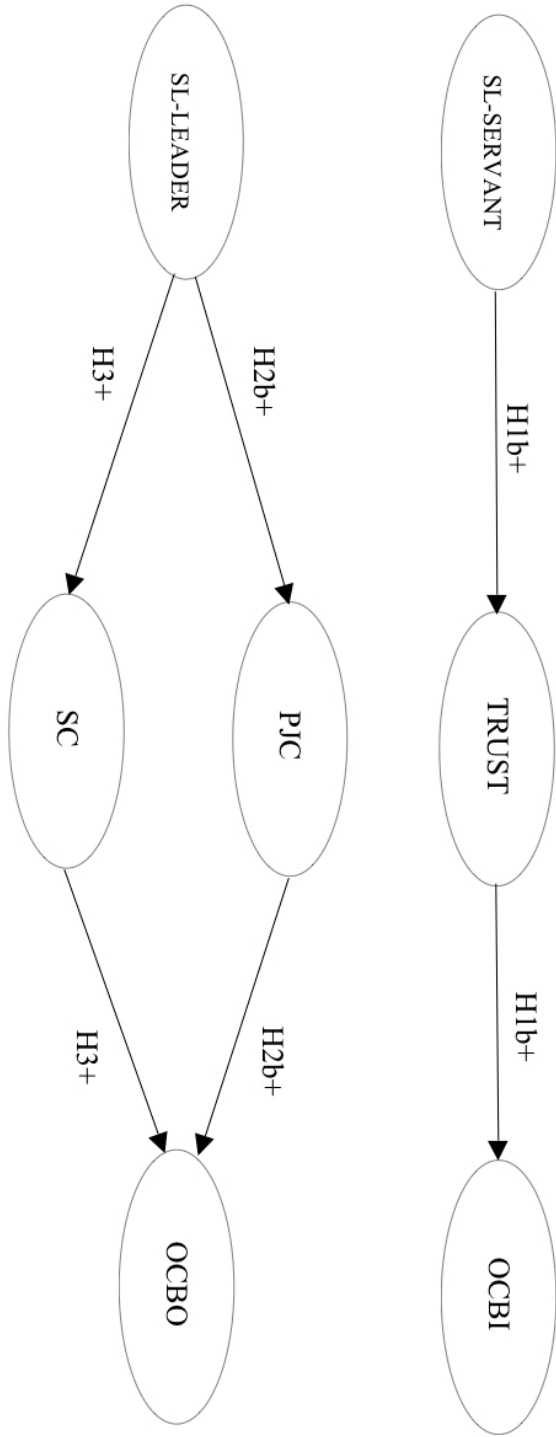
H2b: Procedural justice climate mediates the relationship between the ‘leader’ component of servant leadership and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors.

Additionally, based on the concepts outlined in stewardship theory, I expect stewardship climate to impact the relationship between servant leadership and organizational-level OCBs. Although the importance of stewardship principles in servant leader behavior is recognized in the literature, one area that has been empirically overlooked is the ability of servant leaders to enact a stewardship climate through which they can influence follower citizenship behaviors. By empowering their followers, holding them accountable for their actions, and promoting stewardship, servant leaders create a stewardship climate that allows their followers to take pride and responsibility in their work, and ultimately the organization as a whole. Servant leaders help followers be their best, and trust the followers to do what is best for the organization (Stone et al, 2004). In turn, this climate encourages followers to offer assistance to others in need. Therefore, through empowerment, stewardship, and accountability, I expect servant leaders to create a stewardship climate, which will promote organizational citizenship behaviors among their followers. Furthermore, given previous findings of the partial mediation effects of procedural justice climate on the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors (Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa et al, 2010), I expect stewardship climate to explain variance over and above that explained by procedural justice climate.

P2: Stewardship climate mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.

H3: Stewardship climate mediates the relationship between the ‘leader’ component of servant leadership and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors.

Figure 3 – Hypothesized Model of Servant Leadership



CHAPTER THREE: DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND RESULTS

Empirical Testing of the Proposed Model

The relationships hypothesized in the proposed theory-based model were tested through two consecutive studies. The first study (Study 1) was designed to empirically test the model proposed by Van Dierendonck (2010), which consists of trust and fairness as mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors (as shown in Figure 3). It will also provide an initial test of the separate components of servant leadership. The second study (Study 2) was designed to empirically test the complete model shown in Figure 2, which includes the mediators (trust, procedural justice climate, and stewardship climate) of the relationships between the two components of servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.

Study 1

Procedure and Participants

Participants were working adults recruited by undergraduate students enrolled in three upper-level business administration courses at a large Southeastern U.S. university. The students were given nominal extra credit to recruit working adults. Following procedures outlined in Matthews et al (2010), the researcher trained students on the data collection methodology and ethical code of conducting this study. Students were then provided an email invitation that included further instructions, an email template to distribute to working adults, and the link to the web-based survey (as shown in Appendix A). Moreover, students were encouraged to recruit

people whom they knew, as long as these working adults met the eligibility requirements for this study (18+ years of age, working 40 or more hours per week, not a student).

Each student was awarded extra credit for recruiting a maximum of three survey respondents who fully completed their surveys, but was encouraged to send the survey link to as many working adults as they deemed necessary. This type of initial recruitment procedure does not allow for the calculation of a response rate (Matthews et al, 2010), as all 93 students received extra credit points (i.e., each student recruited at least one working adult), while a total of 333 surveys were submitted through the web-based system.

Fifty-four (54) of the surveys submitted by the respondents were removed because they were incomplete or contained low-quality data. As an additional test of the response quality, a frequency distribution was calculated for the survey completion time (measured as the difference between the start and end times). This calculation revealed that, based on modal response, it took most people approximately 21 minutes to complete the survey. Based on this insight, an additional 20 surveys were removed from the sample since the completion time was less than one standard deviation from the mode (ie, a completion time of 10 minutes or less). Therefore, the final sample size for Study 1 was 259 respondents.

The distribution of the survey respondents' sex was balanced, as 57% of the respondents were female. The participants were primarily White/Caucasian (85%) or Black/African-American (13%), and married (67%). Furthermore, the sample was highly educated, with 69% having a college education (Bachelor's = 48%, Masters/Professional = 18%, Doctoral = 3%). Additionally, the respondents worked in a variety of job types (Professional = 35%, Management = 29%, Administrative = 8%, Technical = 8%). On average, respondents worked for their

company for over nine years, have been in their current position for eight years, and worked for their current manager for 4.5 years.

Measurements

Each measure used a 7-point Likert response format ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics, correlations, and Chronbach alphas for the variables for Study 1.

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011) Servant Leadership Survey. The 30-item servant leadership survey developed by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) consists of eight dimensions. As suggested by Gau and Van Dierendonck (2011), I used a revised version of this scale, which consists of the five core dimensions. These include *empowerment* (7 items, $\alpha = .91$), *accountability* (3 items, $\alpha = .78$), *stewardship* (3 items, $\alpha = .73$), *standing back* (3 items, $\alpha = .83$), and *humility* (5 items, $\alpha = .92$). A sample (empowerment) item is "My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do." Table 1 shows how the dimensions relate to the key characteristics of servant leadership.

Trust. A composite trust scale was created using the 6-item Affect-based trust (ABT; $\alpha = .95$) and 6-item cognition-based trust (CBT; $\alpha = .90$) scales developed by McAllister (1995). A sample item of affect-based trust item is, "I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship." A sample item of cognition-based trust is, "Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker."

Procedural Justice Climate. Procedural Justice Climate (PJC) was measured using Colquitt's (2001) Justice Measure Items. Specifically, the 7-item procedural justice scale ($\alpha = .93$) was used. Participants were asked to think about procedural justice in the context of their latest

performance review. A sample item is, “To what extent have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?”

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors of Followers. In the empirical test of Van Dierendonck’s (2010) model, the organizational citizenship behaviors of followers were conceptualized as one-dimensional. Therefore, OCB was analyzed as one composite scale William and Anderson’s (1991) 14-item OCB scale. I created a second-order factor of OCB consisting of two dimensions based on the seven individual-level OCB items and seven organizational-level OCB items provided by the authors.

As the present study was concerned with stewardship climate as an antecedent to OCB-O, Stewardship Climate was conceptualized as the leader’s ability to influence the organization as a whole (Craig et al, 2011). Hence, I adapted the OCB-O items to capture the respondent’s perception of the actions of organizational members (instead of themselves). Therefore, since this is a new scale, Chronbach alpha scores as low as .6 are considered acceptable.

Table 1 – Key Characteristics of SL related to Measurement Dimensions

Six Characteristics of Servant Leadership <i>(Van Dierendonck, 2010)</i>	Eight Dimensions of Servant Leadership <i>(Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)</i>
Empowering and Developing People	• Empowerment*
Humility	• Humility* • Standing Back*
Authenticity	• Authenticity
Interpersonal Acceptance	• Forgiveness
Providing Direction	• Courage • Accountability*
Stewardship	• Stewardship*

* Denotes a core dimension, as suggested by Gau & Van Dierendonck (2011)

Empirical Test of Van Dierendonck's (2010) Model using Structural Equation Modeling

A structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis of the relationship between servant leadership, trust, procedural justice climate, and organizational citizenship behaviors was conducted using the Mplus statistical program. SEM was selected as a statistical methodology due to several advantages that this method has over regression modeling and basic path analysis. First, SEM allows for the use of confirmatory factor analysis to reduce measurement error by having multiple indicators for the variables in the model. Second, SEM provides the opportunity to include affect-based trust, cognition-based trust, and stewardship climate as mediating variables together in the model, rather than being restricted to an additive model as in regression. Third, SEM offers the opportunity to compare alternative models to assess and determine relative model fit.

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommend a two-step approach to structural equation modeling. As a first step, a measurement model (where all constructs are allowed to correlate freely) is created in order to test relationships between measures and constructs. The first measurement model contained individual items as indicators. However, this model produced poor fit in terms of chi-square, CFI and RMSEA values. Therefore, indicators for the latent variables were created based on either a priori (theoretical) dimensions of the construct or random assignment parceling.

Parceling is a measurement procedure commonly undertaken in latent-variable analysis (for example, SEM). Little, Cunningham, Shahar and Widaman (2002, p.52) define parcels as, “aggregate-level indicators comprised of the sum (or average) of two or more items, responses, or behaviors.” While parceling (as a technique) has received mixed criticism in the literature, most research suggests that parceling is especially effective when using unidimensional

constructs and scales (Bandalos and Finney, 2001; Little et al, 2002). Furthermore, as the number of indicators within the model increases, there are normally decreases in the values of common model fit indices (Ding, Velicer, and Harlow, 1995). This is in part due to the increased likelihood of cross-loadings among indicators, causing overall model fit to decrease (Hall, Snell, and Foust, 1999).

The steps and procedures on random assignment parceling that follow were based on the recommendations of Landis, Beal, & Tesluk (2000). Their research indicates that the efficiency and effectiveness in producing equivalent items compared to other parceling methods make random assignment a viable and reliable choice. In the random method, composites are randomly assigned items from the scale, and then items within each composite are summed (or averaged). I used parceling for procedural justice climate and the separate organizational citizenship behaviors (both organizational and individual levels).

The website www.random.org was used to generate randomized sequences of integers. “The randomness comes from atmospheric noise, which for many purposes is better than the pseudo-random number algorithms typically used in computer programs” (Random.org). Based on the number of items contained in each scale, sets of unique (non-repeating) random integers were created for each of the variables. This ensured that each item in the scale was randomly selected without replacement. A separate set of random numbers was generated for each variable.

Specifically, the scale representing procedural justice climate contains seven items, and was randomly split into three parcels (two containing two items and the other containing three items). The generated parcels were then used as indicators for their respective variables and are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2 – Parcels following random assignment parceling
Study 1 & Study 2**

Scale	Parcel	Items
Procedural Justice Climate	1	6,5,4,
	2	2,3
	3	1,7
Follower OCB – Organizational	1	7,3,5
	2	2,6
	3	1,4
Follower OCB – Individual	1	7,4,2
	2	6,3
	3	1,5

I assessed model fit based on Brown and Cudeck's (1993) recommendation of a comparative fit index (CFI) value of .95 or greater, and Williams, Vandenberg, and Edwards' (2009) suggestion of a root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) value less than .07, as well as a standardized root mean residual (SRMR) value less than .10. The measurement model provides adequate fit with $\chi^2 = 134.38$, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .08, and RMSR = .04.

The measurement model also allows for the calculations of average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR). AVE and CR values were obtained using the formulas provide by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Average variance extracted (AVE) is a measurement of "the amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error" (Fornell and Larcker, 1981, p.45). An AVE value less than .5 could denote some issues with validity, since the variance due to measurement error would be larger than the variance captured by the construct. The formula is:

$$\rho_{vc(\eta)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{yi}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{yi}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p Var(\varepsilon_y)}$$

Construct reliability is a measure of coefficient alpha for latent variables and should exceed .70 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). It was calculated using the following formula:

$$\rho_y = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{yi} \right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{yi} \right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p \text{Var}(\varepsilon_y)}$$

Construct reliabilities for the studied variables are adequate and range from .81 (OCB) to .99 (multiple), as reported in Table 3. Similarly, the average variance extracted ranges from .69 (OCB) to .98 (multiple). Therefore both CR and AVE meet the recommended cutoffs by Fornell & Larcker (1981). Discriminant validity can also be assessed using the measurement model. Craig, Dibrell, Neubaum, and Thomas (2011) state that if the AVE value exceeds the square of intercorrelations among the different latent constructs, then there is good evidence of discriminant validity, and this was achieved for each variable in the model. Table 3 provides Chronbach's α , construct reliabilities, average variance extracted, standard coefficients, and t-values for the indicators.

Additionally, common-method variance was tested using SEM. Common-method variance is "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent" (Podsakoff et al, 2003). As suggested in Netemeyer et al (1997), a "same-source" factor was added to the indicators of all model constructs. This essentially produced two models. The first (constrained) model is the same as the measurement model. In the second (unconstrained) model, a new variable is created and all indicators within the model are linked to this new variable. In other words, each indicator in the unconstrained model has an additional path going to it from the common-method factor. A χ^2 comparison between the

constrained and unconstrained models serves as a significance test of the effects of a same-source factor.

The fit indices for the constrained model were $\chi^2 = 134.38$, $df = 48$; CFI = .96. The fit indices for the unconstrained model were $\chi^2 = 114.36$, $df = 37$; CFI = .96. The difference in fit between these two models was significant ($\chi^2_{diff} = 20.02$, $df_{diff} = 11$, $p < .05$), which suggests that a same-source factor may be evident. All of the loadings on the same-source factor were significant, and the indicator loadings were no longer significant. The additional variance explained is negligible between both models based on a comparison of the residual differences (.4% additional variance is explained in model with the common methods factor); therefore, common methods bias is not likely.

Table 3 – Study 1 Descriptive Statistics
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	Mean	S.D.	AVE	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Servant Leadership	5.37	0.99	.96	.99	<i>.94</i>							
2. SL-Servant	4.84	1.29	.97	.99	<i>.94**</i>	<i>.93</i>						
3. SL-Leader	5.69	0.90	.98	.94	<i>.95**</i>	<i>.78*</i>	<i>.90</i>					
4. Trust	5.25	1.27	.97	.99	<i>.82**</i>	<i>.77**</i>	<i>.77**</i>	<i>.95</i>				
5. PJC	5.07	1.15	.98	.99	<i>.66**</i>	<i>.64**</i>	<i>.61**</i>	<i>.67**</i>	<i>.93</i>			
6. OCB	5.24	0.60	.69	.81	<i>.35**</i>	<i>.29**</i>	<i>.36**</i>	<i>.35**</i>	<i>.32**</i>	<i>.77</i>		
7. OCBI	5.78	0.68	.95	.98	<i>.26**</i>	<i>.17**</i>	<i>.31**</i>	<i>.22**</i>	<i>.19**</i>	<i>.71**</i>	<i>.84</i>	
8. OCBO	4.70	0.86	.88	.95	<i>.28**</i>	<i>.27**</i>	<i>.25**</i>	<i>.31**</i>	<i>.29**</i>	<i>.83**</i>	<i>.19**</i>	<i>.67</i>

Notes:

Reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) are reported on the diagonal in *italics*.

* = Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** = Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Results of the Empirical Test of Van Dierendonck's (2010) Model

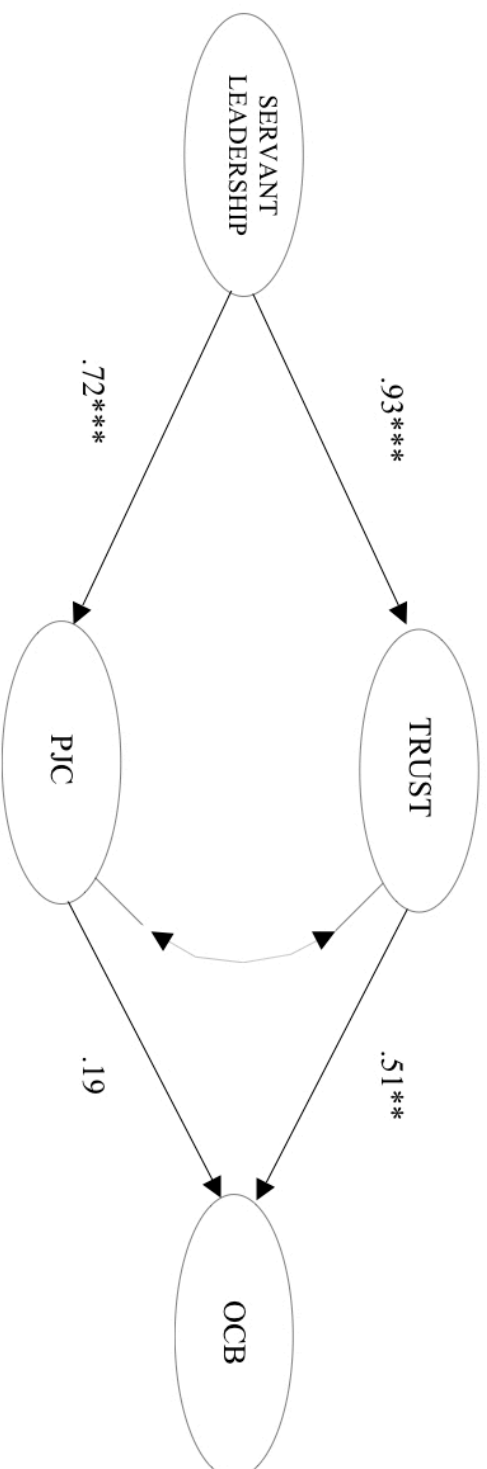
After achieving acceptable model fit in the confirmatory factor analysis, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggest an exploratory factor analysis as a second step. This involves adding relationship paths between the variables and comparing path significance through a structural model. Following the steps recommended by James, Mulaik, and Brett (1982; 2006), I determined a priori (based on the theory and prior research outlined in Chapter 2) that the model hypothesizes full (complete) mediation. Therefore, I did not include direct paths between the independent variable (servant leadership) and the dependent variable (follower citizenship behaviors); their relationship is expected to be fully mediated by trust and procedural justice climate. James et al (2006) state that the test for full mediation represents a more parsimonious test of mediation because it is easier to reject. Their next recommendation includes testing for significant paths between the antecedent (servant leadership) and the mediators (trust and procedural justice climate), as well as a significant path between the mediators and the consequence (follower citizenship behaviors). Both paths must be significant in order for the hypothesis to be supported.

Table 3 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations between the variables included in the model. The hypothesized model achieved adequate model fit ($\chi^2 = 134.34$, $df = 49$; CFI = .96; TLI = .95, RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .04). Figure 3 shows that Hypothesis 1a was supported: servant leadership was significantly and positively related to trust, and trust was significantly and positively related to follower citizenship behaviors. Hypothesis 2a predicted that procedural justice climate would mediate the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors. While servant leadership was significantly and positively related to procedural justice climate, the relationship between procedural justice climate and follower

citizenship behaviors was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

Additionally, I conducted a goodness-of-fit test of the complete mediation model (James et al, 2006). I first calculated the sum of the products of the standardized estimates of the paths between servant leadership, trust, procedural justice climate, and follower citizenship behaviors (representing a reproduced r_{yx}). This was compared to the first-order correlation between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors (observed r_{yx}). Since the values were not significantly different (both r values were .61), then it can be inferred that the only path from servant leadership to follower citizenship behaviors is via the mediators. A significant total indirect effect (.61, $p < .001$) of the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors was also found using Mplus. This significant total effect was comprised of a nonsignificant relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors through procedural justice climate (.14), and a significant relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors through trust (.47, $p < .01$).

Figure 4 – Study 1a Model Results
 Empirical Test of Van Dierendonck (2010)



CFI:	.96
TLI:	.95
RMSEA:	.08
SRMR:	.04

Empirical Test of the ‘Servant’ and ‘Leader’ Components of Servant Leadership

In addition to testing the conceptual model of servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2010), I also tested for the separate effects of the ‘servant’ and ‘leader’ components of servant leadership on individual and organizational follower citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) suggested that there are two second-order factors of servant leadership. The ‘servant’ factor ($\alpha = .93$) of servant leadership consists of the standing back and humility dimensions, while the ‘leader’ factor ($\alpha = .90$) consists of the empowerment, accountability, and stewardship dimensions. Table 4 shows the two second-order factors.

Table 4 – Second-Order Factors of Servant Leadership

Adapted from Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) and
Gau & Van Dierendonck (2011)

<i>‘Servant’ Component</i>	<i>‘Leader’ Component</i>
Standing Back	Empowerment
Humility	Accountability
	Stewardship

As discussed in Chapter 2, I hypothesized separate follower outcomes based on the particular component of servant leadership. Therefore, OCB was conceptualized in terms of the intended beneficiary (Lee and Allen, 2002), and I separated William and Anderson’s (1991) measure into the 7-item OCB-I (citizenship behaviors targeted toward individuals; $\alpha = .82$), and 7-item OCB-O (citizenship behaviors targeted toward organizations; $\alpha = .67$) variables. Employing the same random parceling technique as described above for procedural justice climate, I created three parcels (two containing two items each, one containing three items) for both organizational citizenship behavior (individual) and organizational citizenship behavior

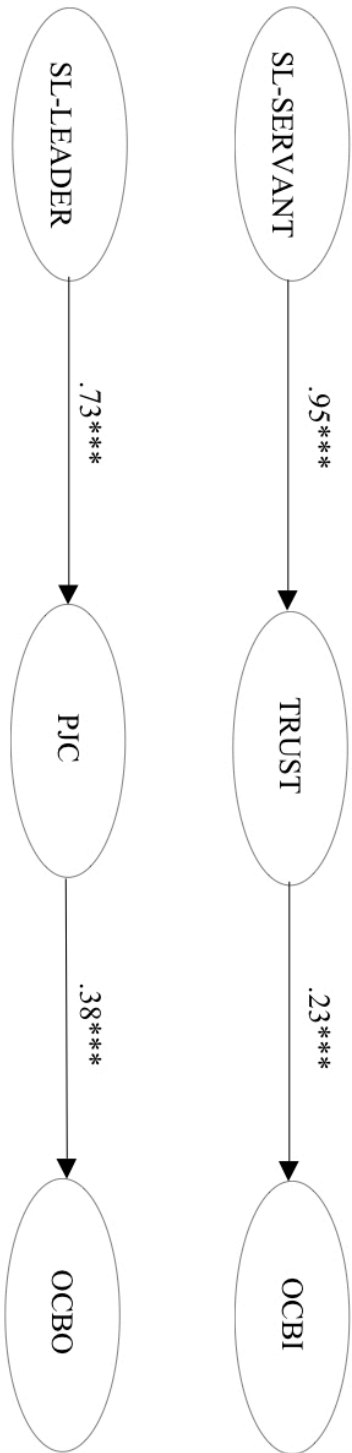
(organization). Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 3, and the parceled items are shown in Table 2.

The measurement model for the revised Study 1 produced good model fit ($\chi^2 = 201.66$, $df = 89$; CFI = .96; TLI = .94, RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05). As expected, the test for common methods variance ($\chi^2 = 150.07$, $df = 74$; CFI = .97; TLI = .95, RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05) again showed the presence of a same-source factor ($\chi^2_{diff} = 51.59$, $df_{diff} = 15$, $p < .05$), although the indicator loadings remained significant for all factors except trust and the ‘servant’ component of servant leadership. Furthermore, the additional variance explained is again negligible between both models based on a comparison of the residual differences (2.6% additional variance is explained in model with the common methods factor), suggesting no effects of common method bias.

The structural model tests trust as a mediator of the relationship between the ‘servant’ component of servant leadership and individual-level follower citizenship behaviors (Hypothesis 1b), and procedural justice climate as a mediator of the relationship between the ‘leader’ component of servant leadership and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors (Hypothesis 2b). As shown in Figure 5, both hypotheses were supported ($\chi^2 = 247.63$, $df = 98$; CFI = .94; TLI = .93, RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07). Additionally, the goodness-of-fit test of the complete mediation model supports the complete mediation. Specifically, the values for the observed r and the reproduced r were both .22 for the relationship between the ‘servant’ component and OCBI. Similarly, the values for the observed r and the reproduced r were both .28 for the relationship between the ‘leader’ component and OCBO. Finally, the model produced a significant total indirect effect (.22, $p < .01$) of the relationship between the ‘servant’

component and OCBI, and a significant total indirect effect (.28, $p < .001$) of the relationship between the 'leader' component and OCBO.

Figure 5 – Study 1b Model Results
Servant & Leader Components of Servant Leadership



CFI:	.94
TLI:	.93
RMSEA:	.08
SRMR:	.07

Study 2

Research Design and Methodology

Study 2 focused on examining the reconceptualized servant leadership model (as theorized in Chapter 2 and shown in Figure 3). Study 2 procedures for gathering the data were identical to Study 1. While a total of 128 students were eligible to recruit survey respondents, only 84 students received extra credit points (i.e. successfully recruited at least one respondent), resulting in 256 surveys being collected. After data cleaning (following the same procedures described earlier), this resulted in a sample size of 228 respondents.

The distribution of the survey respondents' sex was balanced, as 57% of the respondents were female. The participants were primarily White/Caucasian (76%) or Black/African-American (21%), and married (54%). Furthermore, the sample was highly educated, with 70% having a college education (Bachelor's = 51%, Masters/Professional = 16%, Doctoral = 3%). Additionally, the respondents worked in a variety of job types (Professional = 28%, Management = 31%, Administrative = 13%, Technical = 9%). On average, respondents worked for their company for over eight years, have been in their current position for eight years, and worked for their current manager for almost five years.

Measurements

The scales and items for Study 2 were identical to Study 1, with the addition of stewardship climate (as noted below), and the resulting scale alphas are noted in Table 5.

Stewardship Climate. The measurement for stewardship climate (SC) was adapted from the 18-item scale developed by Craig, Dibrell, Neubaum, and Thomas (2011). The paper won the Kennesaw State University / Coles College of Business, Best Empirical Paper award for the Academy of Management Entrepreneurship Division (2011). Furthermore, the paper was

selected for the Academy of Management Best Paper Proceedings (2011). In developing the stewardship climate measure, the authors conducted three studies, including validating the scale against data from multiple countries and examining the scale's predictive power on multiple individual, unit, and firm-level outcomes. The scale captures both psychological (individual) and situational (organizational) mechanisms of stewardship. Since the present study was concerned with the individual-level variable servant leadership as an antecedent to the enactment of a stewardship climate, I only used the 9-items associated with the psychological mechanism of stewardship ($\alpha = .94$). A sample item is "To what extent do employees feel a sense of 'ownership' for this organization rather than just being an employee?"

Table 5 – Study 2 Descriptive Statistics											
Means, Standard Deviations, Construct Reliabilities, Average Variance Extracted											
Correlations, and Cronbach's Alpha Reliabilities											
Variables	Mean	S.D.	AVE	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. SL – Servant	5.02	1.19	.97	.98	.91						
2. SL – Leader	5.75	0.84	.95	.98	.74**	.90					
3. Trust	5.34	1.16	.97	.98	.76**	.75**	.95				
4. Stewardship Climate	5.30	1.17	.96	.99	.68**	.72**	.68**	.94			
5. Procedural Justice Climate	5.07	1.20	.98	.99	.56**	.58**	.60**	.65**	.93		
6. Follower OCB – Individual	5.85	0.81	.97	.99	.21**	.30**	.25**	.33**	.26**	.90	
7. Follower OCB – Organizational	5.78	0.78	.86	.95	.20**	.33**	.29**	.20**	.17*	.41**	.65

Notes:

Reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) are reported on the diagonal in *italics*.

* = Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** = Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Hypotheses Tests

The measurement model produced good fit ($\chi^2 = 240.71$, $df = 131$; CFI = .96; TLI = .95, RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05). Construct reliabilities for the studied variables are adequate and range from .95 (OCBO) to .99 (multiple). Similarly, the average variance extracted ranges from .86 (OCBO) to .98 (multiple). Therefore both CR and AVE meet the recommended cutoffs by Fornell & Larcker (1981). Discriminant validity was also achieved for each variable in the model. Table 5 provides Chronbach's α , construct reliabilities, average variance extracted, standard coefficients, and t-values for the indicators.

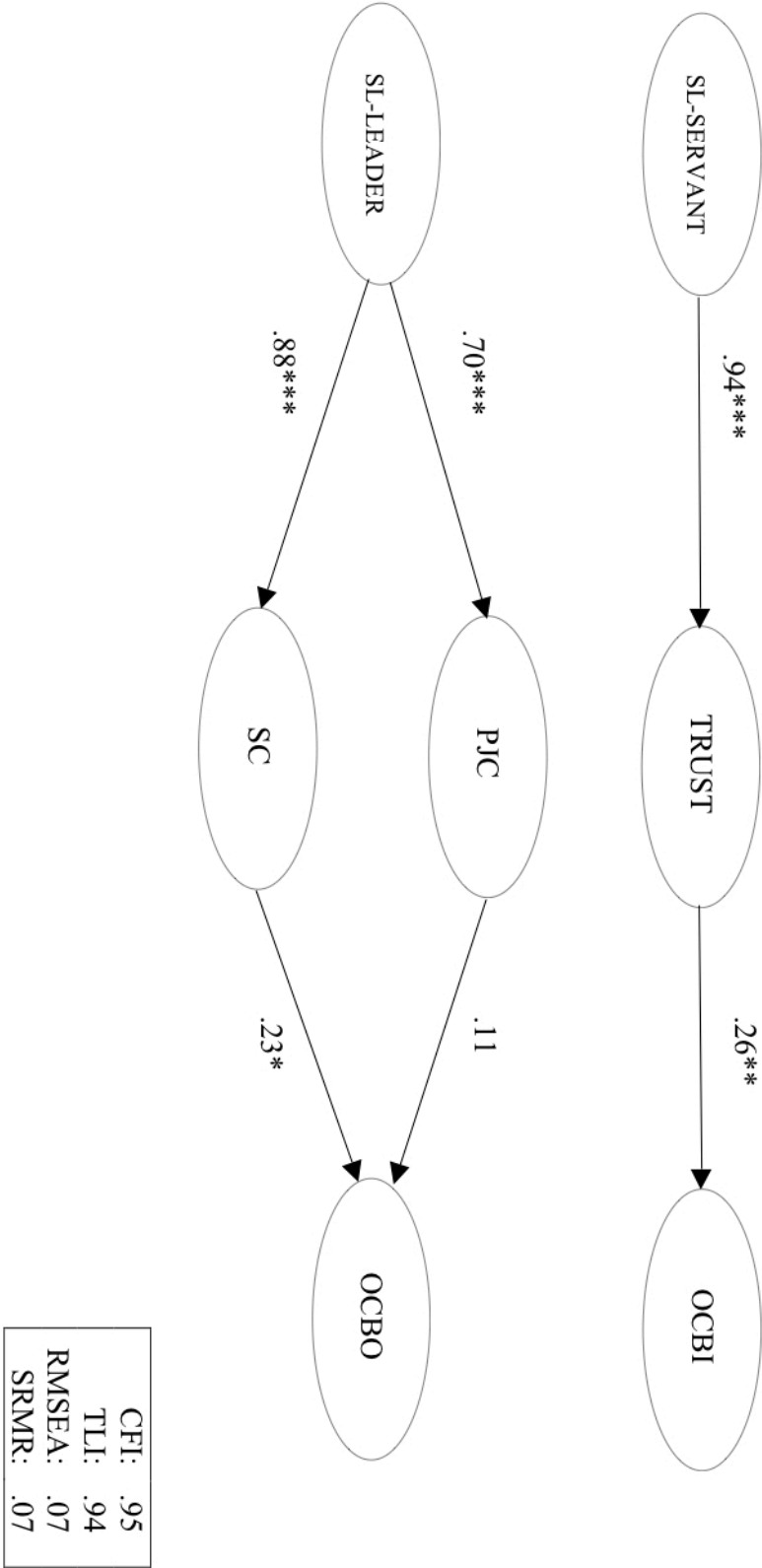
Similar to Study 1, the test for common methods variance revealed the potential for the effects of a same-source factor ($\chi^2 = 155.84$, $df = 113$; CFI = .99; $\chi^2_{diff} = 84.87$, $df_{diff} = 18$, $p < .001$). The indicator loadings did not remain significant for any of the factors except organization-level follower citizenship behaviors; however, the additional variance explained is negligible between both models based on a comparison of the residual differences (.9% additional variance is explained in model with the common methods factor).

The hypothesized model achieved adequate model fit ($\chi^2 = 306.54$, $df = 144$; CFI = .95; TLI = .94, RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .07). As shown in Figure 6, Hypothesis 1b predicted that trust would mediate the relationship between the 'servant' component of servant leadership and individual-level follower citizenship behaviors. This hypothesis was supported; the relationship between the 'servant' component and trust was significant (.94, $p < .001$), as was the relationship between trust and individual-level follower citizenship behaviors (.26, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 2b predicted that procedural justice climate would mediate the relationship between the 'leader' component of servant leadership and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors. While

the relationship between the ‘leader’ component and procedural justice climate was significant (.70, $p < .001$), the relationship between procedural justice climate and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors was not significant (.11). Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 3 was supported; the relationship between the ‘leader’ component and stewardship climate was significant (.88, $p < .001$), and the relationship between stewardship climate and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors was also significant (.23, $p < .05$).

As in Study 1, I performed a goodness-of-fit test of the complete mediation model (James et al, 2006). The values for the observed r and the reproduced r were both .25 for the relationship between the ‘servant’ component and OCBI. Similarly, the values for the observed r and the reproduced r were both .28 for the relationship between the ‘leader’ component and OCBO. The model produced a significant total indirect effect (.25, $p < .01$) of the relationship between the ‘servant’ component and OCBI. The total indirect effect of the relationship between the ‘leader’ component and OCBO was also significant (.28, $p < .01$). This total effect was comprised of a nonsignificant relationship between the ‘leader’ component and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors through procedural justice climate (.08), and a significant relationship between the ‘leader’ component and follower citizenship behaviors through stewardship climate (.21, $p < .05$). The total variance explained through individual- and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors is 7% and 10%, respectively.

Figure 6 – Study 2 Model Results
Reconceptualized Model of Servant Leadership



CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Despite comprehensive literature reviews and increased empirical research on servant leadership, relatively little is currently known about the specific mechanisms through which servant leaders may beneficially impact followers to enact individual- and organizational-oriented outcomes. Servant leaders are often portrayed as only caring for their followers, showing little to no concern for organizational outcomes. Perhaps perpetuating this view is the common use of uni-dimensional measures of servant leadership in empirical research (Van Dierendonck, 2010). This practice has become widespread because the use of multi-dimensional scales has often encountered difficulties. Researchers thus typically rely on mean scores of the scale that they use without regard to multi-dimensionality (Joseph & Winston, 2005; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, and Roberts, 2008; Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke, 2010; Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng, 2011).

The main research question addressed in this dissertation is, "How (i.e., along which mechanisms of influence) do servant leaders impact follower citizenship behaviors?" The conceptual model shown in Figure 2 incorporates the two second-order servant leadership dimensions (i.e., 'servant' and 'leader' components) developed by Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011), as well as procedural justice climate and trust as mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors, as proposed by Van Dierendonck (2010). Furthermore, the findings suggest that the facet of organizational climate that promotes

stewardship (Craig, Dibrell, Neubaum, and Thomas, 2011) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower outcomes. As servant leaders genuinely put the organization's and follower's needs before their own (Graham, 1991; Ehrhart, 2004), it is likely that stewardship climate would mediate the impact of this leadership style on valuable follower outcomes such as citizenship behaviors. The conceptualization and empirical test of this mediation is a unique contribution of this dissertation.

Through the findings of this dissertation, I respond to calls for more research on servant leadership in order to establish its place among prominent leadership conceptualizations and to distinguish it from other leadership styles (Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber, 2009). More specifically, leadership researchers have identified three main criticisms or challenges within the servant leadership literature (Whetstone, 2002; Van Dierendonck, 2010; Northouse, 2012): (1) the lack of empirical research; (2) the negative connotation of the word 'servant' (or the paradoxical phrase 'servant leader') among managers; and (3) the notion that servant leaders only impact individual outcomes, not the organization's goals. The findings of this dissertation address each of these concerns, and are discussed below.

First, this dissertation responds to a need for more empirical studies in order to objectively examine the abundance of conceptual servant leadership literature. Van Dierendonck (2010) proposed a model of servant leadership that includes the key dimensions of this relatively new leadership style, along with its primary individual and organizational outcomes. However, no research has examined this model in terms of using the proposed core dimensions to study the servant leader's effect on citizenship behaviors through trust and facets of organizational climate. Therefore, this dissertation adds to the empirical body of research on servant leadership by empirically exploring this current model of servant leadership. Specifically, Study 1 tested the

mechanisms through which servant leadership impact follower citizenship behaviors. I found that by empowering their followers, holding them accountable for being good stewards towards all organizational stakeholders, and by showing humility by allowing their followers to receive credit towards the group's success, servant leaders build a trusting relationship with their followers. This trust, which is based on emotional bonds with the leader as well as a belief in the leader's competence and dependability, creates a desire within the follower to reciprocate. This reciprocation, as a form of payment to the leader, comes in the form of follower citizenship behaviors aimed at both other individuals within the organization (for example, fellow coworkers) and at the organization as a whole (for example, the willingness to occasionally work late).

Second, in a practical sense, many managers view servant leaders as being passive, soft, or weak, which invites followers to take advantage of leaders employing this style, and therefore makes it an undesired leadership style when compared to more authoritative approaches. Even the seemingly contradictory name 'servant leadership' tends to diminish its credibility among managers (Northouse, 2012). However, this study suggests that followers do not view servant leaders in this regard. Instead, followers tend to respond favorably to the servant leader's ability to show humility by: (1) acknowledging the leader's strong and weak areas; (2) considering the opinions, ideas, and expertise of followers versus a top-down approach to leadership; and (3) being modest in their own accomplishments (while promoting those of the followers). These key characteristics are "generally recognized by managers as essential for modern leadership" (Van Dierendonck, 2010 p. 24). Studies 1 and 2 empirically demonstrated that as followers perceive these tendencies within servant leaders, the follower's trust in the leader increases and they respond by replicating these actions towards other individual members of the organization. This

adds to our understanding of servant leadership since it suggests the core characteristics (standing back and humility) of servant leadership and the key mechanism (trust) through which servant leaders enact extra-role behaviors within their followers towards other individuals.

Third, a major criticism of servant leadership is the notion that by 'putting followers first', it ignores other longstanding principles of leadership like goal setting and creating a vision (Northouse, 2012). While the servant component is key and essential to this leadership style, the findings of this dissertation also suggest that servant leaders influence organizational performance outcomes through a theoretically prominent (yet rarely empirically examined) 'leader' component. Servant leaders are often portrayed as only caring for their followers, showing little to no concern for organizational outcomes. However, there is more to this leadership style than 'just being nice to people'. In fact, some followers may find servant leaders to be more demanding, due to the pressures followers feel since servant leaders provide direction and the tools to be successful. In essence, this removes the built-in excuses for low employee performance (Covey, 1994).

Perhaps this impression is formed based on servant leadership historically being viewed only through the lens of social exchange theory. However, I extend servant leadership theory by exploring this leadership style through the stewardship theory paradigm. While it is well documented that servant leaders choose to influence followers by showing humility, the leader side of servant leaders is very key to the success of the organization as well. Servant leaders influence followers by empowering them to be self-directed decision-makers for the organization, supporting their development in order to help the follower be their best and achieve their goals. Working hand-in-hand with this approach, servant leaders also ensure that followers know what is expected of them, show confidence in the follower's abilities, and hold followers

accountable for their actions and performance. Furthermore, servant leaders promote the idea of stewardship within their followers, emphasizing the importance of tending to the needs of all organizational stakeholders. Therefore, by viewing servant leadership through the lens of stewardship theory, I explain how servant leaders not only focus on a relationship with followers, but also influence organizational performance through the behaviors of their followers.

In addition to this theoretical extension of servant leadership, I also provide empirical support for this relationship. First, Study 1 suggests that the servant leader model be reconceptualized through a detailed view of the specific outcomes of the servant and leader aspects of servant leadership. This reconceptualization is important because it helps extinguish the over-emphasis on the individually oriented ‘servant’ side of servant leadership (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011). In this manner, I demonstrate that both the relationship-focused servant aspect and the organizational-focused leader aspect of servant leadership work simultaneously to influence and motivate followers to go beyond the call of duty. Through trust, the servant aspect inspires followers to assist their fellow colleagues. Additionally, through perceptions of fairness to all, the leader side promotes a responsibility towards all organizational stakeholders.

Furthermore, Study 2 empirically demonstrates the ability of servant leaders to create a climate of stewardship and to use this as a central tool in their ability to enact organizational-focused actions within their followers. In addition to reconfirming the relationship focus of servant leaders, the findings suggest that servant leaders influence their followers by creating a climate of stewardship. More specifically, by empowering followers and holding them accountable for their use of organizational resources to be a steward for the organization, servant leaders develop an organizational climate based on the need to service the needs of the

organization.

This finding is indeed important in terms of understanding servant leadership and distinguishing it from other prominent leadership styles. The presence of conceptual skills (persuasion, foresight, communication, company/industry knowledge) in and of itself does not distinguish servant leaders, since these skills form the foundation for most prominent leadership styles. What is interesting is how servant leaders take advantage of these skills. In contrast to transformational leaders who provide an impact through their conceptualizations of a new and improved future state of the organization, servant leaders help followers envision how their work impacts the organization, society, and the greater good. Interestingly, the absence of these leader qualities of a servant leader does not imply that servant leadership breaks down. On the contrary, through the findings of this dissertation, I suggest that the presence of both the servant and leader qualities leads to a follower that is motivated by trust and a commitment to stewardship to go the above and beyond their job requirements to assist their fellow workers and work towards the benefit of all organizational stakeholders.

Table 6 provides a summary of the Hypotheses and their support across both studies.

Table 6 - Results of Studies 1 and 2

	Study 1a	Study 1b	Study 2
H1a: Trust mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.	Supported	Supported	Supported
H1b: Trust mediates the relationship between the ‘servant’ component of servant leadership and individual-level follower citizenship behaviors.	--	Supported	Supported
H2a: Procedural justice climate mediates the relationship between servant leadership and follower citizenship behaviors.	Not Supported	--	--
H2b: Procedural justice climate mediates the relationship between the ‘leader’ component of servant leadership and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors.	--	Supported	Not Supported
H3: Stewardship climate mediates the relationship between the ‘leader’ component of servant leadership and organizational-level follower citizenship behaviors.	--	--	Supported

Study 1a: Empirical Test of the Conceptual Model of Servant Leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2010)

Study 1b: Empirical Test of the ‘Servant’ and ‘Leader’ Components of Servant Leadership

Study 2: Empirical Test of the Reconceptualized Model of Servant Leadership

CHAPTER FIVE: LIMITATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH, AND IMPLICATIONS

Prior research on servant leadership has primarily focused on the servant aspects of this leadership style, including leader humility and putting the follower's interests above those of the leader and the organization. This focus has resulted in servant leadership being viewed in terms of their relationship with their followers, while the leader is often seen as passive towards organizational outcomes. The purpose of this current research was to explore servant leadership in order to highlight the servant leader's commitment to all organizational stewards. In addition to utilizing a relevant theoretical foundation for servant leadership (social exchange theory), I introduced stewardship theory as an additional theoretical lens through which to view the servant leadership paradigm. In this manner, I developed and empirically tested a theoretical model of the effects of servant leadership (both the 'servant' and 'leader' aspects) on follower citizenship behaviors (both individually and organizationally-oriented).

For the purposes of this study, assessing the model by collecting data from sources in multiple organizations is beneficial to theory development. However, this also produces limitations and presents opportunities to expand the model in other settings. Three limitations of the present study surround empirically distinguishing servant leadership from other prominent leadership styles, common method variance, and the manner in which organizational climate is assessed.

First, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) note that not only are there many conceptualizations currently present in leadership research, there is also a tremendous amount of

overlap. While the current study focused on the effects of servant leadership on follower citizenship behaviors, other prominent leadership styles (such as transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) have also been found to impact this outcome. This points to a need to empirically distinguish between the various styles of leadership and their effects on individual and organizational outcomes. Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) found initial support for the differences between servant leadership, transformational leadership, and leader-member exchange.

Second, as noted in Chapter 3, the presence of a common method factor was found in both studies, even though the additional variance explained due to each common-method factor was negligible. However, the use of the same collection procedure (same-source data for all measures in the study) does present challenges to this study. Part of the challenge with reducing the effects of common methods pertains to the outcome variable of choice (follower citizenship behaviors). Chan 2009 notes that supervisor-reports of follower citizenship behaviors may be more acceptable due to impression management tendencies of the follower, but this only improves the current model by introducing a different rater. Conway and Lance (2010) suggest that having multiple raters does not necessarily alleviate common-methods variance. Third, as noted in Chapter 2, organizational climate is a shared perception of organizational expectations. While this current study asked each participant to respond based on the group's shared perception, there still may be the tendency to only give their own particular perception.

Therefore, assessing the servant leadership model in an organizational setting provides the opportunity for many areas of future research. Regarding multiple leadership styles, an organizational context would provide the opportunity to assess the strengths of various leadership styles and how they affect organizational outcomes. Additionally, the ability to

measure peer and/or supervisory ratings of follower citizenship behaviors is another advantage when in an organizational environment. It is clear that servant leaders view positively impacting the employee and the community as the primary mission of a business, instead using profit as the primary purpose (Spears, 2010). Nonetheless, exploring servant leadership in an organizational setting would allow for the measurement of an objective outcome variable (such as an objective performance measure), which would not only reduce the effects of common methods variance, but also extend servant leadership beyond the traditional outcome variable of extra-role behaviors. Furthermore, in an organizational setting, facets of organizational climate could then be assessed at a team level of consensus, allowing for a greater understanding of the servant leader's impact on stewardship climate.

One potential outcome variable that has scarcely been explored through servant leadership is innovation. Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, and Strange (2002) noted that innovation is not only dependent upon the situation, but also upon the characteristics of the leader. While leadership makes a difference on the creative efforts within an organization, certain leadership styles may tend to foster a creative environment better than others. Specifically, the characteristics inherent in servant leaders may be particularly suited to promote creativity and innovation. Van Dierendonck and Rook (2010) provided a foundation for this line of thought by developing a model in which servant leadership, by setting clear role expectations, promoting high levels of leader-member exchange, and fostering self-concordance (intrinsic motivation), positively impacts follower creativity. To integrate the findings of this dissertation, I suggest that trust between the servant leader and followers may also play an important part in this role. In other words, servant leaders provide direction to followers, and consistently demonstrate their commitment to helping the follower grow and succeed by providing them with necessary

resources. Furthermore, since it is often futile to demand innovation (Mumford and Licuanan, 2004), the ability of servant leaders to forgive followers for mistakes must also be considered. By providing direction and allowing followers to make mistakes, followers trust the servant leader and now feel free to explore uncharted territories without the fear of reprimand. Future research should explore this relationship between servant leadership and follower creativity in depth by (1) empirically establishing the relationship, (2) testing for trust, role expectations, leader-member exchange, self-concordance, and other potential mechanisms as mediators, and (3) examining potential boundary conditions, such as the importance of creativity in a particular job.

Non-business or more informal settings may be of interest as well. Van Dierendonck (2010) briefly mentioned the possibility of studying servant leadership practices outside of an organization, for example, on a sports team with the relationship between players and the coach. Hammermeister, Burton, Pickering, Chase, Westre, and Baldwin (2008) found that athletes who had a servant leader as coach reported greater satisfaction with their performance. Perhaps this line of reasoning can be combined with the findings of this dissertation, specifically in the areas of stewardship. While many athletes take a self-centered approach to the game, perhaps servant leaders can create a team culture of achieving the organization's goals as well as the individual's goals. Servant leaders may empower athletes to set individual and team goals, then assist them by not only giving the athletes the tools they need to be successful, but also holding them accountable for achieving both sets of goals. In this manner, servant leaders may impact both the player and the team.

Another area for future research within an organizational setting lies in exploring other potential influences on the relationship between servant leadership and organizational outcomes.

More specifically, leader integrity may play a role. An important research question is whether servant leaders are perceived by their followers (i.e., a particular group or team) to act as organizational stewards, and how this affects the follower's performance (both in-role and extra-role behaviors). Or, perhaps the follower's integrity is key in this relationship. Servant leaders may promote climates of stewardship, but if followers are not interested in having a servant leader (Meuser, Liden, Wayne, and Henderson, forthcoming) or if the follower does not have a high level of integrity, they may act in ways detrimental to the other members of their team, or to the organization as a whole.

Finally, practical implications of this model exist as well. Many practitioners dismiss servant leadership as a worthwhile style of leadership based on the notion that it gives too much control to followers, undermines the leaders authority, and does not have the organization's interests in mind. In order for servant leadership to advance in business practice among leaders, it is necessary to link the application and contribution of servant leadership to its central principles (Prosser, 2010). In other words, there is dire need for more information regarding servant leadership's business results. "In an ideal world, servant leadership results in community and societal change" (Northouse, 2012, p.233). Greenleaf (1970) did not frame community change as a direct outcome of servant leadership. Rather, by providing direction and holding their followers accountable for positively using organizational resources, servant leaders develop their followers into a organizational stewards. The organization grows healthier through their followers, which ultimately benefits the community at large (Northouse, 2012). To that end, the findings of this suggest that while servant leaders choose to operate through the followers, the outcomes of their focus influence followers to respond through ways that impact all organizational stakeholders. Furthermore, while many tend to only focus on enhancing the

relational aspects of humility and putting the follower's interests first, there are key organizational benefits to be gained from the leader side as well. By empowering followers and holding them accountable as stewards of all organizational resources, servant leaders can have a greater impact on influencing followers to pursue goals beneficial to the entire organization and to the community at large.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX: A

Survey Procedures and Participant Recruitment Emails

Steps in the survey process:

1. PI meets with instructor's classes to discuss the survey, bonus points, and ethics of not cheating (ie, UofMiss Code of Conduct, overview of statistical and web-based methods for determining if the data is invalid).
2. Instructors either add PI as a Teaching Assistant on Blackboard, or PI sends the following emails to the professor to send to the students.
3. Students contact PI if they have issues.
4. The incentive for the students is a possible 2% (approximately) extra credit points, if the student finds participants to complete all three surveys. For example, if there are 500 points possible in the class, the student they will receive 10 points over and above the total 500 points possible in the class. In this example, the points are rewarded as follows: 1st survey = 2pts, 2nd = 3pts, 3rd = 5pts).
5. There are also some classes where the instructor has elected to not give students extra credit points, but will still allow the PI to ask the students to find working adults to complete the survey. In these cases, no incentive will be given. Therefore, the emails to the students and the survey participants in these classes will not contain any language concerning extra credit points or other incentives.
6. PI sends the instructors a list of the students and points (unless they have added the PI to Blackboard and want the PI to enter the points)
7. PI sends the instructors weekly updates consisting of the students who have received points, and the number of points those students have received.
8. PI sends the students who received credit and the subject an email overview of the study.
9. Response rate will be calculated based on class enrollment at the last drop date of the class.

Emails to students who have been offered extra class points by their instructor:

Dear Students,

This e-mail is regarding the extra credit opportunity we discussed in today's class. In order to receive extra credit points you must follow the instructions. Remember, the person you ask to take the survey must be at least 21 years old, and work full-time (40+ hours per week), and should NOT be a current college student. You will receive the extra credit only if the working adult completes the entire survey.

Here are the instructions:

1. Identify the working adult (age 21+, full-time, NOT a current college student) who you personally know and who you believe will complete surveys on your behalf. Then, send them an e-mail with instructions on how to complete the survey. There is text at the end of this e-mail that you can copy/paste into your e-mail to the working adult (just be sure to fill-in the appropriate blanks with their name and your name). These instructions should tell the survey taker everything they need to know about how to take the survey.
2. Once you e-mail the working adult taking the survey for you, you may consider sending them a follow-up e-mail a few days later just to be sure they took the survey. The deadline for the completion of the survey is _____.
3. You are NOT allowed to take the survey yourself.
4. Finally, be sure to emphasize to the survey taker that in order for you to get the extra credit, they must A) remember to type in your name and email address in the appropriate spot on the survey, B) include their name, telephone number, and email address on the survey, and C) complete the entire survey.

Please let me know if you have any questions and I will be glad to help you out. Also, feel free to e-mail the researcher (Researcher Name) at (Researcher Email) if you have questions about the survey.

Thanks,

Here is the text for the student to e-mail to your working adult:

Dear _____,

I have been given the opportunity to earn class credit in my management course at The University of Mississippi. To earn the class credit I need your help. Below is a link to an online survey for you to respond to. Aspects of this study examine how leadership impacts the foundations for moral behavior. This survey will only take approximately 25 minutes. The survey will ask you for your name, email address, and telephone number, as well as my name and email address. The researcher will contact a portion of the survey participants to be sure they actually took the survey (and that the undergraduate students did not take it), but you will not receive any other calls/solicitations.

In order for you to take the survey you must be at least 21 years old and work full-time. Also, in order for me to receive the class credit (recognition) you must include my name (_____) and email address (_____) in the appropriate box on the survey and you must complete the survey by _____.

Here is the link to the survey:

<Survey Link>

Thank you so much for your help! Please let me know if you have any questions about the survey.

APPENDIX: B

Measures

SLS – Servant Leadership Survey (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2010)

Empowerment

- My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.
- My manager encourages me to use my talents.
- My manager helps me to further develop myself.
- My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas.
- My manager gives me the authority to make decisions which make work easier for me.
- My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.
- My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

Standing back

- My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credits to others.
- My manager is not chasing recognition or rewards for the things he/she does for others.
- My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own.

Accountability

- My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.
- I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.
- My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.

Forgiveness

- My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work (r).
- My manager maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work (r).
- My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past (r).

Courage

- My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.
- My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.

Authenticity

- My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.
- My manager is often touched by the things he/she sees happening around him/her.
- My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.
- My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff.

Humility

- If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.
- My manager learns from criticism.
- My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.
- My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.
- My manager learns from the different views and opinions of others

Stewardship

- My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.
- My manager has a long-term vision.
- My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.

SCS – Stewardship Climate Scale (Craig, Dibrell, Neubaum, & Thomas, forthcoming)

Intrinsic Motivation (adapted from O'Driscoll and Randall, 1999)

To what extent are employees in your organization satisfied with various facets of their job?

- The extent that supervisors express appreciation to subordinates.
- The extent that supervisors give credit to subordinates for their work.
- The extent that supervisors give praise to employees for good job performance.

Organizational Identification (adapted from Reynolds, 2003)

To what extent do the following statements reflect the beliefs of the employees of your company?

- The company's successes are the employees' successes.
- Employees feel a sense of "ownership" for this organization rather than just being an employee.
- Employees talk up the organization to their friends as a great organization to work for.

Use of Power (adapted from Raven, Schwarzwald, and Koslowsky, 1998)

Decide to what extent you agree that the following statements reflect the supervisors in your company.

- Supervisors give good reason for changing how employees do their jobs
- Supervisors explain why the recommended change is for the better.
- Supervisors are good at identifying necessary changes.

Procedural Justice Climate (Colquitt 2001)

The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your (outcome). To what extent:

- Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
- Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
- Have those procedures been applied consistently?
- Have those procedures been free of bias?
- Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
- Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
- Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

7 items – 5 point Likert response format ("small extent" to "large extent")

Trust (McAllister, 1995)

Affect-based trust

- We have a sharing relationship.
- We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.
- I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen.
- We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together.
- If I shared my problems with this person, I know (s)he would respond constructively and caringly.
- I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship.

Cognition-based trust

- This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication.
- Given this person's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job.
- I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work.
- Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker.
- Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy.

If people knew more about this individual and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more closely (rc)

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

OCB-O (directed toward organization)

- Attendance at work is above the norm.
- Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.
- Takes undeserved work breaks. (Reverse scored)
- Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations. (Reverse scored)
- Complains about insignificant things at work. (Reverse scored)
- Conserves and protects organizational property.
- Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.

7 items – 5 point Likert response format (“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”)

OCB-I (directed toward individuals)

- Helps others who have been absent.
- Helps others who have heavy workloads.
- Assists supervisor with his/her work when not asked.
- Takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.
- Goes out of his/her way to help new employees.
- Takes a personal interest in other employees.
- Passes along information to coworkers.

7 items – 5 point Likert response format (“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”)

VITA

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EDUCATION

Bachelor of Arts in Accounting
December 1998
Morehouse College – Atlanta, GA

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Primary: Leadership, Management History
Secondary: Teams, Social Entrepreneurship

JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS

Novicevic, M., Clayton, R. W., Williams, Jr. W. A. *Barnard's Model of Decision Making: A Historical Foundation of Image Theory*. Under Review at Journal of Management History

Humphreys, J. H., Williams, Jr. W. A., Clayton, R. W., & Novicevic, M. M. (2011) Towards the augmenting role of authenticity: Xenophon as leadership theorist. *Management & Organizational History*.

Harvey, M., Moeller, M., Sloan, H., & Williams, A. (2010), Impaired employees: Lessons learned from The Wonderful Wizard of Oz. *Business Horizons*, 53(6), 561-570.

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Novicevic, M. M, Buckley, M. R., Clayton, R. W., Moeller, M., & Williams, Jr. W. A. (2009). Commemorating Chandler Through the Lens of His Revisionists. *Journal of Management History*, 15, 3: 313-322.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Williams, Jr. W. A., & Clayton, R. Searching for Sartrean Authenticity in Leaders Described in Xenophon's Works. Paper presented at the 2010 Annual Conference of the Southern Management Association, St. Pete, FL.

Novicevic, M., Clayton, R. W., Williams, Jr. W. A., & Moeller, M. Barnard's Model of Decision Making: A Historical Foundation of Image Theory. Paper presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the Academy of Management, Chicago, IL.

Williams, Jr. W. A., & Clayton, R. The Effects of Virtual Technology on Team Processes. Paper presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines, Memphis, TN.

Williams, Jr. W.A & Moeller, M. Inpatriates' Adjustment to Western Organizational Cultures. Paper presented at the 2008 International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines, Memphis, TN.

Clayton, R., & Williams, A. *A Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Work-Life Enrichment*. Presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines, Memphis, TN.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

University of Mississippi, School of Business Administration

- Instructor, Management of Strategic Planning (MGMT 493): Spring 2012
- Instructor, Human Resource Management (MGMT 383)*: Spring 2011
- Instructor, Selection and Staffing (MGMT 485)*: Fall 2010, Spring 2011
- Instructor, Compensation Management (MGMT 494)*: Fall 2010
- Instructor, Principles of Management (MGMT 371): Fall 2008, Spring 2009, Fall 2011

Denotes courses that included Distance Learning & traditional, face-to-face instruction

WORK EXPERIENCE

Tennessee Rush Soccer Club, Memphis, TN

President and Co-Founder

TN Rush Soccer Club is a non-profit organization that promotes the development of character, the electricity of competition, and the importance of pure enjoyment in the sport of soccer. We accept the responsibility of teaching life lessons to our athletes to further their growth inside the game and out. 2006-Present

International Paper, Memphis, TN (January 1999 – July 2007)

IT Security Analyst II (May 2003 – Present)

IT Applications Development Analyst (July 2001 – April 2003)

Financial Analyst (January 1999 – June 2001)

Project Viking – SAP HR Implementation

- Spearheaded the cutover process for two conversions; resulted in the on-time and successful execution of go-live related activities
- Developed upload templates that allowed the project to configure 1400 benefit plans a day, resulting in more time for data quality and less for data entry
- Trained end-users on HR system procedures

SAP General Ledger Process Redesign Project

- Successfully led the redesign project of the Debt and Cash Management processes using SAP, resulting in a simplified and consolidated system for each department to use during month- and year-end processes as well as day-to-day administration
- Converted the financial process of two business groups and multiple corporate staff units to SAP
- Traveled to paper mills to support the financial staff in their initial month-end close in SAP
- Trained end-users classes on the general ledger/budgeting processes